The Nation.

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The Week.

The silly and credulous Imperialists, as distinct from the bloodthirsty species, have got no end of comfort out of the report that large numbers of Filipinos are taking the oath of allegiance to the United States. A child with a new rattle could not be happier then they—or more foolish. Why, the theory with which they start is that the Filipino is a treacherous cut-throat! He is bound by no law of man or God. If he swears to high heaven that he wants his freedom, and will fight for it till he dies, no more attention is to be paid to him than to a tiger howling in the jungle. Yet the timid geese who think they are Imperialists because they squawk loudly, tell us, that the instant this untrustworthy and unspeakable monster of a Filipino takes the oath of allegiance to the United States, he becomes a noble example of good citizenship and a fit candidate for membership in the Republican party! They who believe that will believe anything. It is not often, however, that silliness meets with so swift a refutation as in their case. On the very day when these simple-minded editors were publishing their jubilations, they were compelled to read a Manila dispatch saying that Gen. MacArthur was about to deport a lot of natives, since he had discovered that they "swore allegiance to the United States for the purpose of facilitating revolutionary operations"!

Speaking seriously of the oath of allegiance pressed upon Filipinos, one clause of it makes the man who takes it "solemnly swear that I will support the Constitution of the United States." But what on earth has the Constitution to do with the case? It does not apply to the Philippines, so the Administration contends. The Attorney-General argued for hours before the Supreme Court that the Filipinos are outside the pale of Constitutional immunities and privileges. Yet the same Government that takes this attitude requires Filipinos to swear that they will stand by a Constitution which does not stand by them. This is too much. The old Scotch lady who admitted that she did not know what the Solemn League and Covenant was, but vehemently declared, "I'll mainteen it," is left far in the rear by the absurdity of a Filipino's oath to support the Constitution of America, in which, America declares in the same breath, he has neither part nor lot.

While the draft of the Cuban Constitution may be subject to amendment under debate, its leading intent and provisions are clear. No one can deny that they contemplate a republican form of government, modelled in general upon our own, but even more quickly responsive, in some respects, to the will of the people. We are glad to see that the Convention has squarely met Secretary Root's challenge, in all that relates to a limited Cuban sovereignty. His idea that free and independent Cuba should have neither army nor navy, should contract no public loan, and should have no direct diplomatic relations with foreign countries, is contemptuously brushed aside. The Cuban Constitution explicitly provides that all these attributes of sovereignty shall be reserved to the Cuban Republic. It is much to be hoped that the Convention will bring its labors to a close at an early day. The sooner it places its completed Constitution before the American Administration, the sooner will it appear whether the latter means to keep faith or not.

Into the merits of the unhappy controversy between Gen. Wood and Superintendent Frye we have not entered, and do not intend to enter now. The material is as yet lacking for an intelligent judgment on the points at issue. But, whatever may be the facts about Cuban schools and the new law for their regulation, one thing is clear—Mr. Frye should have been clung to and used in the work if it were at all possible to do so. The reason is to be found in the very statement issued in Gen. Wood's name, explaining why he considered it advisable to reorganize the Cuban school department. In this he admits Mr. Frye's great "popularity" among the native teachers and people in general, and adds that it is "undiminished to-day, and is even more than popularity, for it is based on affection." A man of whom that can be said, should have been grappled with hooks of steel to the Cuban Administration. One who has the affection and sympathies of the Cuban people is worth more as a governing force than ten regiments. There was no secret about Mr. Frye's popularity. It sprang from his hearty entering into the hopes and aspirations of the Cubans. He did not, like the rest of official America, cease cheering for "Cuba Libre" the moment the war was over, and as soon as the island began to appear a very fruitful Naboth's vineyard for us to seize upon. Mr. Frye always spoke, and spoke openly, as if the United States intended to keep its solemn promise, and as if Cuba were to be launched as an independent nation. This made him popular with the Cubans; it appears to have made him unpopular with the American military government. His practical dismissal is undoubtedly a great grief to the islanders, and will be one proof more to their minds that our Government has no real intention of making Cuba free and independent.

An examination of the bill for the increase of the army as it now stands shows that it was distinctly improved by the alterations of the House and Senate conferees. It is in no sense a "reorganization" bill, although widely so termed, but merely one which carries with it wholesale enlargements of staff and line, and which prescribes some radical departures from American military traditions. Since Secretary Root's plan for an interchangeable line and staff has been adopted, the bill is in this respect a real triumph for the Secretary, despite the fact that the system is not to be introduced until the many staff vacancies created by the bill are filled with volunteer-army friends of the Congressional spoilsmen. If the disappearance of the absurd veterinary corps from the provisions of the bill is a cause for satisfaction, the fact that the service is in many places thrown open to volunteers with pulls is, on the other hand, disheartening to all who desire to see merit rule in the military as well as in the civil service. Fortunately, the line is somewhat protected by an age limit and examinations as to fitness before appointment; but what other army would tolerate second and first lieutenants aged forty?

The opportunities for place-hunters are unequalled in the history of the army. Indeed, the measure, in so far as its primary effects are concerned, should properly be entitled "A bill to demoralize and disorganize the army." Every second lieutenant of artillery, cavalry, and infantry will be promoted on the passage of the law, and a large number of vacancies will still remain among the first lieutenants. These places are to be filled by volunteer officers now being brought back from the Philippines, and volunteer and regular soldiers of one year's service. But how and when? It is very easy to raise additional regiments on paper, but the mere collecting and examining of the necessary officers is a task of months, even if the requisite enlisted recruits are forthcoming. It will take years before the army can settle down to stable conditions, and begin to attain again that standard of efficiency and *esprit de corps* so marked at the outbreak of the war with Spain, and so lacking ever since, owing to the conditions of service, the frequent changes in organization, and the poor material injected in 1898 and 1899, thanks to the politicians.

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In still other aspects the bill deserves the attention of the public. Primarily, it is a departure from all recognized tradition and a distinct step towards Imperialism, in that it confers upon the President the right to fix the size of the army between a minimum of 58,000 and a maximum of 100,000 men—a privilege bestowed by the Constitution on Congress and hitherto jealously guarded by that body. It is true that the President receives the power to maintain the maximum strength only during the "present exigencies of the service, or until such time as Congress may hereafter otherwise direct." But this violation of the fundamental principle as to the separate functions of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of the Government is none the less serious. The bill also breaks with the past in that it calls for a large increase of the standing army in what the Administration considers "a time of peace." Similarly important enlargements in the history of the regular army are to be found only during the wars with England, with the Confederacy, and with Spain.

When the naval appropriations waxed enormous at the close of the brief struggle with Spain, they were justly attributed to war expenditures. Now, in 1901, after two years of peace, the annual Naval Appropriation Bill is twenty-five millions larger than the one for 1900; and although only four new vessels are provided for, the total expenditure is to be not less than eighty millions of dollars. In other words, the sum asked for the next fiscal year is more than twice as large as that voted in 1898. Of this vast amount which the House Committee on Naval Affairs is willing to bestow upon the navy, some fifty millions are to go directly to the expansion of the service, twenty-five millions for the construction of ships already authorized, and the rest for repairs and the improvement of permanent depots, navy-yards, and construction plants. If this is not a long step in the direction of militarism, it is certainly an alarming symptom of the readiness of Congress to fasten large military burdens upon the country. Already the military and naval expenditures of the United States surpass those of Germany for her "nation in arms."

The statement made by Secretary Gage of the reasons why Congressman Hill's Gold Standard Bill should pass, has not been surpassed for clearness by anything that we have seen in the silver controversy. The substance of it is that confidence, like charity, begins at home. If the Government wants the holder of silver dollars to believe that they are equal in value to gold, the Government must begin by treating them as such. But what did the Government actually do? The House last March passed a bill making gold and silver dollars exchangeable for each other at the Treasury. The Senate struck that clause out and the bill passed without it. What was the public to infer from that change in the form of the bill? Evidently, that the Government itself doubted whether the silver dollar would at all times and under all circumstances be the equal of the gold one. This is the whole philosophy of the monetary situation to-day. The Government makes a distinction between silver and gold, and because it does so the financial community makes a distinction. The ordinary citizen does not know any difference between the two, but the bankers and money dealers stand ready to "turn in silver" to the Treasury, and keep back gold, at any time when the financial horizon looks squally; and they do so merely and solely because the Government, while receiving silver dollars at the back door in the form of taxes, refuses to redeem them at the front door in gold.

The salient points in the report of the Senate Finance Committee on the Tax Reduction Bill are the retention of the stamp tax on bank checks and the reduction of the tax on tobacco. Both of these changes are in accord with justice and sound principles of finance. The tax on bank checks is paid by those who have balances in banks; that is, by the well-to-do classes. The affixing of stamps on checks is not an annoyance, or not necessarily such. Anybody can procure the checks already stamped by paying a lump sum, after which the use of them is not more annoying than that of unstamped ones. The sum of $7,000,000 per annum is realized from this tax. The question for Congress to consider is whether this sum can be raised more easily and equitably in any other way. An impartial answer must be in the negative. This was one of the last of the civil-war imposts to be repealed. It might very properly have been retained then. On the other hand, the tax on tobacco is essentially a tax on the poor. The use of tobacco is common to all classes, the poor as well as the rich. Whether we call it a luxury or a necessity, the fact remains that the burden falls upon those who use tobacco, and that fully 90 per cent. of them are wage-earners. The rich man who smokes may use a more costly article, but the amount he consumes is usually not greater than that of the poor man. Consequently, it is an unequal tax in the sense that the burden is imposed not according to the ability of the citizen to bear it. On the other hand, it is optional with anybody to pay the tobacco tax or not. He can refrain from using the article, and thus avoid paying both the tax and the prime cost. In other words, it is a self-imposed tax, and for this reason there is much to be said in favor of retaining it in a moderate degree.

The further reduction of the tax on beer, additional to that which was made by the House, is very questionable. It testifies merely to the political pull of the brewers in nearly all the large cities of the Union. The lower tax will be so much money in their pockets. The consumer will not get any reduction in price by reason of the reduction of tax. A large number of stamp taxes are repealed by the Senate bill, including those on telegraph dispatches, express and freight receipts, promissory notes, bills of lading, and warehouse receipts. These are taxes where the annoyance and inconvenience overbalance the revenue they bring in. The same may be said of the stamp duties on proprietary medicines. All these ought to be swept away. We cannot see any good reason for retaining any part of them. The bill does retain the tax on medicines of which the formula is or purports to be a secret. It also retains the tax on perfumery and cosmetics. These are the small crumbs of the War Revenue Bill. They ought to be thrown into the dust heap with the other scraps. *De minimis non curat lex.*

A banquet of the American Protective Tariff League is announced for February 16 at the Waldorf-Astoria, and circulars have been sent around asking for subscriptions at fifteen dollars each. There be banquets and banquets, some for general purposes and some for special purposes. The special purpose of this banquet, as we are informed, is to promote the reappointment of Wilbur F. Wakeman as Appraiser of the Port of New York at the expiration of his present term. Apart from any question of high tariff or low tariff, this is an appointment not fit to be made. Mr. Wakeman entered the Appraiser's office absolutely destitute of the kind of knowledge an appraiser ought to have, and his mental characteristics are such that all the knowledge he has gained since has been a damage to himself and to the Government and to the merchants of New York. He has kept the Custom-house in hot water by the most erratic and insensate rulings. He has been constantly at variance with Collector Bidwell, who is just as stanch a protectionist as himself, and who has been one of the very best Collectors the port of New York has ever had. Wakeman has acted upon the theory that importation is a crime. This is a mental kink in his head which his superior officers, including the Board of General Appraisers and the Secretary of the Treasury, have been trying in vain to straighten out, but the only thing they have been able to do is to force him to resign the position of Secretary of the Protective Tariff League while holding that of Ap-

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praiser of Customs, which was rightly considered by Secretary Gage as a scandal. Columns of matter have been published in the newspapers about his frivolous "hold-ups" and exasperating delays of goods belonging to honorable merchants who are members of this same Protective Tariff League that is now asked to participate in a fifteen-dollar dinner to promote Wakeman's reappointment.

After a careful study of the question of superannuated employees in the civil service, a remarkably competent committee of the Civil-Service Reform Association, Richard Henry Dana, William Dudley Foulke, and Silas W. Burt, unanimously recommends as the best remedy a life-insurance system on the deferred annuity plan, to which all employees must subscribe during the probation period. The policies are to be non-assignable, if the plan is adopted, and secured by deposits by the insuring companies in Government control. Details of the plan are to be worked out by a special commission, but the proposition itself has distinct merits which from the start commend it to most favorable consideration. The objections to a national system of civil pensions are too obvious to need restatement. The frightful abuses of the military pension list are arguments against it which cannot be talked away. A plan by which the office-holder who is to benefit by the annuity after retirement himself contributes towards the annuity, necessarily engenders a better spirit, and one of economy and self-help, far different in its effect upon the beneficiary from that created by the knowledge that the Government is to supply the pension. The committee's report and its further elaboration will render useless a stock argument against the merit system, which, by the way, has at present as little foundation in fact as most of the other criticisms. This is the charge that the service is already full of superannuated men because of the merit system. But as the latter did not go into effect until 1883, and the age of its appointees averaged less than thirty years, it is plain that any superannuated employees of to-day are chargeable to the spoils method of appointments only. The committee carefully went over all possible systems of pensions on this side of the ocean and on the other, and it is not probable that its plan can be improved upon. The only argument against it which occurs to us is the possibility of its leading to a demand for increased pay on the part of office-holders to make up for the annual payments on policies.

It is not true that the absent are always wrong. The Chinese were absent on Sunday evening when Bishop Potter said that they had been foully treated by so-called Christians in China—travellers, traders, promoters, and money-getters. He should have added soldiers, officers, and statesmen. "What we need to do first of all," said the Bishop, "is to convert the people we send to the Chinese." This was a centre shot, but there is another thing that needs to be done quite as much, and that is, to abate the unconscionable demands made upon that poverty-stricken people for money indemnity. As bearing on them there has been published by Johns Hopkins University an abstract of an address delivered there by Mr. Alfred E. Hippisley, an Englishman who has resided many years in China, in the office of the Imperial Customs under Sir Robert Hart. Mr. Hippisley shows by figures, with which he has become familiar by long experience, that China cannot pay even the smallest of the sums demanded of her. She had the greatest difficulty in raising the money for the Japanese indemnity in 1895. To do this she was obliged to mortgage her customs revenue up to the hilt. Her credit is not equal to borrowing the money, and even if she could float a new loan, she would inevitably make default of the interest, whereupon the Governments would foreclose and seize the country. Everything points to seizure now, since the longer the foreign occupation continues, the larger the demand for indemnity becomes.

As Oklahoma is pretty sure to become a State before long, the rest of the country is interested in finding out what are the chief elements in its population. On the presumption that the Legislature fairly represents the people, it appears that all sections of the country have made contributions. The larger part of the members were not born, as might have been expected, in the neighboring States of Kansas, Missouri, Arkansas, and Texas. There are five natives of Ohio and as many of Indiana; three of Illinois and two of Wisconsin; while New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and Maine are each represented by one member. Kentucky also has one; and of the other Southern States Arkansas has contributed three and Missouri one. The occupations of the thirty-nine members of the Legislature furnish another indication that lawyers, in whatever part of the country they find themselves, are likely to come to the front; there are ten of them in the Legislature of this agricultural Territory, against eight business men and seven farmers. The indications, in spite of the fluctuations of the Republican vote since 1894, are that the admission of Oklahoma will be a safe Administration measure. Six years ago the Republicans cast 42 per cent. of the votes; in 1896, when the Democrats and Populists combined against and defeated them, 48 per cent.; but in 1898 they defeated the Democrats by a vote of 28,456 to 19,088, or 60 per cent. At the last election the Republicans lost some of this ground, their vote amounting to 38,253, or 52 per cent., a majority over the Democrats of 4,728. In the Territorial Legislature they now hold twenty-one seats, a majority over all of three, the Fusionists having elected ten members, the Democrats seven, and the Populists one.

It should not be overlooked that the death of Queen Victoria gives the established churches of England and Scotland a new head. In England the monarch's supremacy in things ecclesiastical is exercised chiefly in the appointments to episcopal sees—one such vacancy exists at present through the death of Dr. Creighton—and, although the Premier advises in such matters, the authority of the sovereign is by no means nominal. It is notorious, for instance, that Canon Liddon would have become a bishop but for royal disfavor. Within the Church of England there is a growing section which resents this intrusion of the secular arm, and especially protests against the unreality of the *congé d'élire*. The agitation for self-government is likely to be accelerated by the change in the person of the head. However correct may be the general belief that the new King has shaken off his earlier follies, there can be no doubt that his qualifications for any kind of control over the affairs of a religious organization are not equal to those of the late Queen. It will, therefore, not be surprising if his accession contributes to the spread of disestablishment principles within the Church itself.

That the French Ministry has not committed itself blindly to the new *Kulturkampf*, is shown by the publication, in two volumes, of elaborate statistics of the growth of the religious orders since 1850, and of their present wealth. From this survey it appears that in 1850 their properties were worth about $10,000,000, while to-day their ostensible property is at least $220,000,000, and their wealth held in trust, or otherwise concealed from the authorities, is estimated (a hostile estimate, it should be said) to be three times as much. What public service do the 3,216 religious houses of France perform? is the question that the Government with its Socialist allies will soon ask. To this it may be answered that three-quarters of the religious establishments maintain schools, that many care for orphans or do other works of charity. But the feeling is general in France, and shared by many of the secular clergy, that the orders are a charge on the State, and many of them hostile to republican institutions; and it is this feeling that is likely to prevail over arguments about the rights of private property, or the more sentimental considerations which the orders bring forward in their defence.

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MORE TRUTH ABOUT THE PHILIPPINES.

That Americans, both as individuals and as a Government, have been guilty of the vice of "presumptuous judgment" concerning the Philippines, few of them any longer deny. The facts are too patent. As accurate prediction is the sure and crowning proof of a scientific theory, so falsified prophecies are the haunting accompaniment of slovenly guess-work. And in this Philippine fiasco all the leading actors stand self-confessed as surprised blunderers or lying prophets. President McKinley has innocently admitted that he "never dreamed" that there would be a Philippine insurrection against our rule. The ablest diplomat of the Paris Commission—we mean, of course, the Hon. Whitelaw Reid—thought the prospect of any native rising so "remote" as to be wholly negligible. Gen. Merritt flatly told our Peace Commissioners at Paris that there would be "no danger of conflict" if the United States took the islands. But why enlarge the list? All concerned are in the same boat. The event is so different from the anticipation that it is impossible to defend our Philippine policy as far-sighted. Moles in charge of the affair would have looked beyond their own noses just about as far as we have done. The whole nation, from President down, stands convicted in the eyes of the world of a "presumptuous judgment" concerning the Philippines. The problem before us was not what we thought it was; our attempted solution is now seen to be ludicrously inadequate.

We are beginning to see the reasons for some of the honest mistakes we have made. One of them has been an inordinate trust in the "man who has been there." Lord Palmerston's old gibe on this subject should have warned us. As he sarcastically explained in the House of Commons, the "man who has been there," knowing nothing of the language, history, habits, or real ideas of the natives, is usually loaded up with a mass of misinformation. How many of our officers in the Philippines speak Spanish? We are informed that only two of the entire number have ever so much as studied Tagal. Is it not evident, then, that they must rely upon native interpreters and go-betweens? Granting that such persons are not simply working and lying for the pay they get from Americans, how truthfully will they be apt to reflect the real sentiments of their people in arms? How correct a notion of the spirit of Washington's army at Morristown, and of the residents in the interior, could Gen. Howe have got from renegade Americans in his pay in New York?

Such queries are suggested with fresh force by a reading of the latest important book on the subject—"The Inhabitants of the Philippines" (Scribners). Its author, Mr. Frederic H. Sawyer, is an English engineer who has lived fourteen years in the Philippines. He knew Spanish well when he went there, and later acquired a knowledge of the Tagal language. Not a skilled writer, he sets forth in a blunt way the results of his prolonged and extensive personal observations. Let it be said at once that he is not an Anti-Imperialist. He thinks it eminently proper and desirable for the United States to seize and subdue the Philippines; only he insists that we have gone about the job in a bungling way. We have too readily taken the word of officers who have been only "a few weeks in Manila amongst sycophantic Mestizo-Americanistas." The really significant report of Messrs. Wilcox and Sargent, U. S. N., who travelled through North Luzon and reported what they saw, our Government ignored. The result is, says this Imperialist, that American rule in the Philippines has "begun unfortunately." It will "take a generation to efface" the hatred which the natives now feel for Americans. If some compromise be not reached, we shall need "a huge army to keep the natives down." "Unless some arrangement is come to with the natives, there can be no lasting peace."

The whole drift of those portions of Mr. Sawyer's book which deal with the American occupation is that we have been from the beginning misinformed and misled, and have gone on from one blunder to another. Our Paris Commissioners had the wool pulled over their eyes. The President was badly served by both civilians and soldiers to whom he looked for information and guidance. The consequence is, says Mr. Sawyer, a "wretched war that commenced February, 1899, and is still proceeding." "In it the Americans do not seem to me to have displayed the resourcefulness and adaptability one would have expected from them." The soldiers were "good fighting-men," but in Manila their "daily scenes of drunkenness and debauchery have filled the quiet natives with alarm and horror," while the army has brought "in its train a flood of cosmopolitan harlotry." Gen. Otis had no authority, and frittered away his time. Judge Taft "seems to have inherited the cheerful optimism" of his predecessors, reporting the insurrection "ended" with a like blind disregard of the facts.

The recent roseate report of the Philippine Commission was dated November 30, 1900. Secretary Root must have had it in his hands at least three weeks. Why did he withhold it from Congress? Did he want to get the Army Bill through first under fear of military disasters? Just after having got his 100,000 men, does it not look a little strange to tell Congress that the time has come to set up a civil government, and to repress "disturbances" by the local native police? We make no insinuations. We ask only for information. The thing looks queer. Then why should there be such a sudden demand for the passage of the Spooner resolution? That is said to furnish the authority for the kind of civil government now needed in the Philippines. But the very first sentence of the Spooner resolution reads: "When all insurrection against the United States . . . shall have been *completely* suppressed, etc." Nobody maintains that this is yet the case. Secretary Root cannot, for otherwise his asking for an army of 100,000 men would have been under false pretences. Judge Taft cannot, for he deftly withdraws his famous prediction that all would be over within sixty days after the reëlection of McKinley. He writes now to Mr. Root that when, in accordance with "your cable direction," he predicted that the end would come in two months' time, he did not think he should live to have to confess that the insurrection would last "for a somewhat longer period." The reason he gives for this handsome withdrawal of his campaign prediction is that "two unfortunate reverses" of our troops made the insurgent leaders "more defiant and boastful." These were the petty affairs at Siniloan and Marinduque. In the first, twenty-four officers and men were killed; in the second, Capt. Shields and fifty-one men were captured, but afterwards released. Evidently these are mere pin-pricks in a war in which 60,000 men are engaged; yet Judge Taft alleges them as the sufficient explanation of the failure of his magnificent prediction. Perhaps, however, this is only his way of saying that he is ashamed of having made it at all, "in reply to your cabled direction."

The most pointed questions in all this business relate to the friars. It is evident that the Administration has got itself into an *impasse* in that matter. By article viii. of the Treaty of Paris we are bound to maintain the property rights of the religious orders. Judge Taft has looked into their titles, and found them perfect. The friars legally own, he reports, some 403,000 acres of land, exclusive of buildings, etc. The natural thing to do would be, of course, to reinstate the religious orders in possession of their property. This was, apparently, the first intention of the President. His Catholic agent in the Philippines, Archbishop Chapelle, in an interview with a Dominican Provincial, printed in the Manila *Progreso* of January 14, 1900, said that the friars had been needlessly alarmed; that he came to the country with the best disposition towards them; and that, when they were restored to their parishes, they would be regarded as "American institutions and elements of order."

The Philippine Commission, however, after taking pains to arrive at the real

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native opinion, discovers that the restoration of the friars is simply impossible. Their legal right is complete; we are bound by treaty obligation to support it; yet the thing cannot be done. It would inflame the insurrection into tenfold fury. What, then, is to be done? Buy the friars off, says Judge Taft. They will sell out at a "satisfactory price"—he seems not to dare to say how large. He does say, though, that the United States, not the island revenues, will have to furnish the money. Here we are, then, face to face with a most ugly difficulty which our Paris Commissioners, *d'un cœur léger*, foisted upon us. The case has been forcibly put, in its awkward alternatives, by the Rev. Dr. Leonard Bacon. He writes:

"(1.) There is neither Constitutional nor legal provision by which we can molest these ancient titles, but a distinct prohibition of such interference except by making full compensation. Archbishop Chapelle is understood to have named $20,000,000 as a price at which the several orders might be willing to commute their claims. (2.) Supposing the Constitutional and legal difficulties removed, under the novel doctrine that we have the right to rule these islands as an absolute despotism, there is not a leading politician of any party who would dare to lift a hand either to infringe these titles, or to indemnify the Roman missionary orders with enormous cash endowments out of the National Treasury. (3.) Supposing Constitutional and legal and political difficulties all obviated, we have bound ourselves by treaty with the ancient tyrant of the islands that we will perpetuate the worst of its tyranny. Is there any way out from this trouble, either for ourselves, or for the islanders? I can see one way, and only one."

We suppose Dr. Bacon means withdrawal from the islands. That, at any rate, is the "bountiful answer" which fits all Philippine questions.

THE PROPOSED BANK TAX.

Many outrages have been inflicted on the State of New York in the name of reform, and the proposal to equalize burdens by nearly doubling the taxes now borne by both national and State banks is one of the worst of them. It is a simple scheme of confiscation. Every one who knows anything about the subject knows that the banks, as a whole, now pay much more than an equitable share of the tax on personal property. The amount of their capital and surplus is known, and it cannot be falsely reported or concealed. Government bonds are exempt from taxation; but the courts have contrived to hold that they are not exempt when they form part of the capital of the bank. As a matter of fact, the personal property of the banks of the State is assessed as fully as real estate, and in the city of New York it is assessed at a higher rate than real estate. The National Banking Act provides that "the taxation shall not be at a greater rate than is made or assessed upon other moneyed capital in the hands of individual citizens." The Banking Law of the State of New York contains a like provision. Both are openly, persistently, and outrageously violated. No individuals, except perhaps executors and women who are caught in the toils of the law, are assessed at anything like the rate which is imposed on banking capital, nor could they pay their taxes if they were. Probably there are very few assessments of banking capital now made which are legal, and if the bill now before the Legislature is enacted, there will be none. For this bill proposes to levy, in addition to all the present local taxes, a tax of one per cent. on the capital, surplus, and undivided profits of every bank. Such a tax might be endured by a stockholder who was rich, just as he might endure any other loss, but it spells ruin for many of the smaller banks, which have now all they can do to "make strap and buckle meet."

The State of Pennsylvania adjoins for hundreds of miles the State of New York, and commerce pays no attention to State lines. In the State of Pennsylvania banks pay a tax of four-tenths of one per cent. In New York they pay three or four times as much, and it is easy to see that they have hard work to meet outside competitors when they are near the State line. Were a tax of one per cent. added to their present burdens, they could not meet this competition. They would have to distribute their surplus, or give up their charters and become private banks, or go out of business altogether. Some banks are already considering these alternatives. To a certain extent these conditions exist in the city of New York. It would be inconvenient and expensive to transfer banking capital to New Jersey; but it might be less expensive than to attempt to use it in New York, if present burdens are to be increased. It would be undesirable to distribute to stockholders that part of banking capital which is called surplus; but it might be less undesirable than to have it dissipated in paying taxes. It would be a hardship were incorporated banks compelled to transform themselves into private bankers; but it might be less of a misfortune than for them to withdraw from business.

It is well known that, taking the towns and cities of the State, the banks pay from 25 to 75 per cent. of the total personalty tax. In a city of medium size, near the Pennsylvania line, there are two banks which pay 43 per cent. of this tax. The women of the city—some of them widows of railroad men killed in discharging their duties, who have been so foolish as to invest the insurance paid on their husbands' lives in mortgages—pay 17 per cent. of this tax. The men of the city pay 15 per cent. of it. A proposal to increase the tax paid by widows of railroad engineers on mortgages held by them would not impress the public as equitable. It is quite as much so, however, as the proposed bank tax. One of the banks in the city referred to pays taxes amounting to 5⅛ per cent. on its capital, and over 2½ per cent. on its capital and surplus. Its present city, county, and State taxes amount to about 1½ per cent. on capital and surplus; the proposed tax would increase this by two-thirds. Were it enacted, the two banks in that city would pay more than 60 per cent. of the whole tax on personal property.

The number of banks, national and State, is small, and that of their stockholders not very large. Bankers, as a rule, have not made it a practice to send money to Albany to promote or to prevent legislation; their only resource is in appeals to reason and justice. On the other hand, attacks on the "money power," open or covert, are supposed to be very effective with the people. The farmers are told that they are to be exempted from all direct State taxation, and that the banks are to make up the deficiency. A very large part of it would be made up in the city of New York. The 62,000 voters of the State Grange are expected to be enthusiastic and unanimous in support of this bill, and they far outnumber the stockholders of banks. Whether they outnumber the independent voters, who change the political complexion of this State when their reason is appealed to and their sense of justice aroused, is another question.

Whether expedient from a party point of view or not, such measures as this are economically pernicious. New York is a great commercial and manufacturing State, requiring the most copious banking facilities. It is hardly necessary to say that enough hindrances to its industry and trade are already provided by Government. To contract its banking facilities—for such in the long run must be the effect of overtaxation—is simply killing the goose that lays the golden eggs. The banks ask no favors, and it is safe to say that they will get none. But they do ask that, in view of the present outrageous inequalities and burdens of their taxation, whatever change is made shall be in the direction of justice, and not further away from it. Doubtless they could get satisfactory treatment by paying for it; but their proper course is to fight this bill in the Legislature, and, if beaten there, to fight it in the courts. In doing so, they will be contending for their own interests no more than for those of the whole community.

THE INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT ACT.

A public document of more than usual interest is the report of the Commissioner of Labor in response to the resolution of the Senate, of January 23, 1900, directing that official to "investi-

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gate the effect upon labor, production, and wages of the International Copyright Act, approved March 3, 1891, and report the results of his inquiries." Such results as were obtainable are set out in a pamphlet of ninety-nine pages, of which the last eleven pages consist of a republication of the copyright laws in force. Of the remaining text, seventy-seven pages contain verbatim statements from publishers, leading printers, the American Copyright League, etc., giving opinions, pro and con, as to the value and effect of the act in question, and less than six pages additional are devoted to an explanation of the methods used in making this inquiry, with the Commissioner's summing up of such evidence as he has succeeded in collecting.

Tables are printed showing (a) the number of copyright entries, and amount of fees applied, from July 10, 1870, to December 31, 1900; (b) the number of entries of foreign and United States productions, respectively, and the fees for the same from July 1, 1895, to December 31, 1900; and (c) the number of articles deposited at the Copyright Office during the last three fiscal years. In this last table the articles are arranged by classes, but no distinction has been made between productions of foreign authorship and works by native authors, so that it is difficult to see how any deductions can rightly be made from these tables as to the effect of the law upon the number of entries made or articles deposited. It is assumed that one effect of the law has been greatly to increase the number of copyright entries, because "the year 1890 (that immediately preceding the passage of the act) shows an increase of but 1,813 entries over the number for 1889, while the year 1891 shows an increase over 1890 of 6,119 entries, although the act did not become operative until July 1 of that year." A careful examination, however, of the table of entries and fees, from 1870 down, shows such noticeable fluctuations that it is doubtful if such an assumption can safely be made. Unfortunately, no exact figures are available for the foreign and United States entries, respectively, up to July 1, 1897, but for the three calendar years following the entries are: 1898, foreign, 7,779, United States, 69,095; 1899, foreign, 8,122, United States, 78,370; 1900, foreign, 8,478, United States, 89,489, while the increase in the entries, foreign and United States, respectively, for the last two years was: 1899, foreign, 343, United States, 9,275; 1900, foreign, 356, United States, 11,119, showing that, of the yearly increase, the foreign entries made a very small proportion. It is probable that, of the total increase from 1890 to 1891, a larger percentage was due to entries for foreign productions, but, even so, it was probably a small proportion of the total increase of 6,119; and up to 1900, inclusive, the highest number of entries for the productions of foreign authors, etc., in any one year since the act went into force, July 1, 1891, was only 8,478.

The Commissioner explains that, on its becoming apparent that detailed statistical information of the character contemplated by the resolution could not be secured, an endeavor was made to obtain expressions of opinion from the class of people whose conclusions would be of most value—publishers, printers, and the official members of printing unions and allied trades-unions—by addressing to them a series of seven questions designed to bring out the views of the persons and establishments to whom they were submitted, regarding the general results of the law as affecting labor and production. Altogether, seventy responses were received, of which fifty-five are set down as regarding the law and its results more or less favorably, while fifteen consider it detrimental.

Commissioner Wright points out that the clause requiring the manufacture in the United States of copyright works, the feature of the law directly affecting "labor, production, and wages," was adopted at the instance of the typographical unions; but although prominent members of the International Typographical Union in several principal cities were personally interviewed, and requested to submit facts and their own views regarding the beneficial or detrimental effects of the act, only oral statements could be obtained from some of them to the effect "that, in their opinion, the law has been of no real benefit to printers or allied craftsmen; that the 'manufacturing clause' of the law, requiring copyrighted works of foreign authors to be printed from type set, or from plates made from type set in the United States, is violated to a considerable extent by the fraudulent importation from Europe of stereotype plates, which are used for the printing of such works in the United States; and that the effect of the law is to confine the labor of production of each copyrighted work to the employees of the single establishment to whom the monopoly of publication is secured under the law, whereas, were it not for the law, the works of many foreign authors would be published by several different establishments, thus giving employment to a largely increased number of operatives." The Commissioner adds that effort was made to secure definite statements giving instances of violation of the "manufacturing clause," but none could be obtained, and no expression of views beyond oral ones, such as quoted, could be secured.

It is to be presumed that the statement that, were it not for the existing law, the works of many foreign authors would be published by several different establishments, thus giving employment to a largely increased number of operatives, is made in remembrance of the old times of literary piracy, when there was a possibility of free scrambling for the works of popular foreign authors; but the document under consideration contains evidence from most competent sources that the competition this very scramble induced led to cheap work, and consequently narrowed the compensation earned by printers as compared with that obtained through the higher quality of book production under the protection of the copyright law.

The questions sent out were as follows: (1.) Has the international copyright law been detrimental or beneficial to (a) publishers or book manufacturers; (b) compositors, pressmen, bookbinders, and employees generally; (c) American authors; (d) foreign authors; (e) the book-purchasing public? (2.) In what respects has the law been detrimental or beneficial to each of the above-mentioned classes? (3.) Has the effect of the law been to increase or to reduce the selling price of books? About how much per cent.? (4.) Was "piracy," as practised prior to the enactment of the international copyright law, beneficial or injurious to printers or publishers? (5.) Do American and European publishers exchange stereotype plates, or are European plates used to any extent in the production of books in America? (6.) What is your general opinion as to the operation and effect of the international copyright law? (7.) In what respects do you think the law in question should be amended or changed?

The responses to these questions indicate, according to the summary, that a large majority of the establishments interviewed heartily favor the law, believing it to be highly beneficial in its general operation and effect, although some of them criticise certain of its features, and express their views as to amendments of the law that are deemed desirable. On the other hand, "a comparatively small but highly respectable number" of establishments are said to be "utterly opposed to the law," believing it to be pernicious in practice and wrong in principle.

Whether favorable or adverse to the law, the individuals or firms represented favor certain changes in the copyright laws now in force, the principal alterations proposed being summarized as follows:

"(1.) It is believed by many publishers that the 'manufacturing clause,' requiring the manufacture wholly within the United States of copyrighted books, photographs, chromos, or lithographs, whether the work of residents or non-residents, should be abrogated.

"(2.) That the requirement of publication of copyright works in the United States not later than the date of their publication in any other country (which has the effect of requiring simultaneous publication on both sides of the Atlantic of the works of English [and American] authors) should be changed so as to allow a reasonable time to elapse between publication abroad and at home.

"(3.) That the term of existence of copy-

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right should be extended beyond the limited period now granted.

"(4.) That the publication in the United States of unauthorized translations of copyrighted books of foreigners other than English should be prohibited."

This last proposition would seem to be adequately met by the provision in the present law, Revised Statutes, section 4952, as amended by the act of March 3, 1891, reading as follows: "And authors or their assigns shall have exclusive right to dramatize or translate any of their works for which copyright shall have been obtained under the laws of the United States." What is desired, apparently, is that, in the case of books in foreign languages not now copyrighted in the United States by reason of the type-setting stipulation, the author or assignee should be allowed to secure copyright on an authorized English translation, to the exclusion of any unauthorized translation into English.

Thanks are due to Commissioner Wright for having elicited and brought together the very interesting and valuable opinions on this important subject, printed in his report, and we hope in a subsequent article to present a collated summary of them.

SCHOOL AND COLLEGE.

To get some kind of continuity of method and ideal into our polymorphous system of education is certainly an urgent necessity. Consequently, President Low's recent effort to bring Columbia into closer touch with the public-school system by permitting the substitution of an extra quantum of mathematics in lieu of the usual Latin requirement for admission—though by no means a new attempt to fill up the gap that exists between the two earlier stages of our system—deserves serious attention. His recommendation will certainly be cited and appealed to as a precedent by lesser colleges and universities; and in many a Western faculty Columbia and Cornell will be held up as bright examples of modern tendencies in education at the East.

The want of continuity between our elementary and our higher education which this recommendation of President Low's seeks to supply, is the result of the peculiar growth of our educational system. The public school and the college were primarily designed to meet quite different social and intellectual conditions. The original ideal of the one was the perfect citizen; of the other, the well-trained minister of the gospel, and incidentally the perfect gentleman. The one is modern, and a part of that political creed which was kept so bright during the last century, but is getting somewhat tarnished now, viz., All men are politically equal. The other is mediæval, and is based upon the intellectual division of men into lay and cleric. The one has always retained its democratic features; the other has not yet got rid of the earmark of its aristocratic origin.

In its earlier history the academy, not the public school, was the dominant influence in our elementary education, and the elementary and higher ideals did not so loudly clash. But, as the influence of the academy has grown weaker, the strength and pervasiveness of the public school have grown greater, until now the latter is become the dominant factor, and we have before us the problem of articulating the public school with the college. It is no easy task. Western universities (most of them are really colleges), growing up under local conditions and holding chiefly utilitarian or scientific ideals before them, have not been vexed by the problem, but our stronger Eastern universities and colleges have it still to work out. While these institutions have met the modern demand for scientific training, they have also sought to retain their ideals of culture, and most of them have succeeded in the effort. The modern public school, being nearer to the popular heart, has sacrificed ideals of culture to those of science, so that while the ordinary public schools can send up to the college or university students prepared to continue their education along scientific lines, most of them are unable to furnish the necessary propædeutic for culture. Hence a lack of continuity between the two.

President Low's idea of a solution is simply and frankly to follow Western experience: to unify the two along the line of the physical sciences and utilitarian aims, a line of least resistance, and let the culture go. This is merely a robbing of Peter to pay Paul. Peter's fate need not give the public much anxiety, as it is hardly likely that President Low's recommendation will be followed by the stronger universities and colleges of the East, and Western universities are already beginning to learn that there must be something in education besides science, if it is to be at all adequate to modern needs. But his proposal calls sharply to our attention the need of an elementary discipline of culture which, while being modern in content, scientific in method, catholic in ideal, practical in effect, shall also be such an elementary discipline as will naturally and easily adjust itself to the higher discipline of culture imparted in our universities and colleges.

English is the only subject which can fulfil these conditions; but English is unfortunately a discipline whose value is not yet clearly recognized by the public, either lay or academic. If, in casting about for such a connecting link, our attention is directed to our own language and literature, we sadly shake our heads, for we see clearly that our present methods of studying English do not yield us what we want, and we naturally conclude that the subject itself is not broad enough or serious enough to supply the place of elementary classics. Nor is it, as now taught: its principles are dogmatic, not scientific; its rules are arbitrary, not empiric; its judgments are emotional, not rational; its teachers are many of them untrained and incompetent; and its educational machinery is not yet developed.

We are strengthened in our conclusion as to the inadequacy of English as an elementary discipline of culture by the opinions of the last generation of literary critics, who were sadly convinced of our literature's lack of "high seriousness." We have not yet found out that these somewhat pretentious arraignments were made by men who were quite ignorant of English—men whose notions of literature and language were those of the sixteenth century. These imposing judgments still weigh upon us; they are so soberly positive, so speciously disinterested, so calmly classic, that we can hardly believe them wrong. So we treat the question as a settled one. We go on teaching our language according to antiquated and unscientific methods hopelessly at variance with modern thinking, and revamping Renaissance judgments of our literature hopelessly at variance with the simple facts of its life and history. Thus, when we are forced to the conclusion that our classical machinery of elementary culture is inadequate to modern intellectual life and to our modern educational conditions, we think that we must abandon culture, at least elementary culture, altogether, and devote the earlier years of training to a preparation for the pursuit of science. Small wonder if those of us who cannot ignore the value of culture are thus compelled to oppose the development of science as the only means of retaining what culture there is in our educational system.

THE NEW KING'S DIFFICULTIES.

First among the difficulties which the new King of England has to confront may be considered those that are personal. "Woe to the man who comes after the King!" says the proverb. Double woe to the King who comes after the Queen—such a Queen as Victoria. The passing of her immemorial dignity and prestige would make the rôle of any successor a painful one, by sheer contrast, at first. As for the character and aptitudes of the King, it would be idle to deny that the "fatal shadows" of his reputation as Prince of Wales walk by him still. Everybody is, of course, turning for historic comfort to the example of Henry V., whose youth had "faulty wandered and irregular," but who became a moral and puissant monarch. Harry of Monmouth, however, reached the throne and "turned away his former self" at the age of twenty-

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six. It is a different matter becoming King at sixty.

At the same time, it is only fair to say that, in his princely function, as distinct from his private life, King Edward VII. has been entirely correct. He has won high praise in this regard even from English radicals. Frederic Harrison and Mr. Morley, for example, have spoken of his wholly proper and praiseworthy conception and discharge of his public duties. What they meant was that he bore himself as the heir apparent should in a Constitutional monarchy. He had, or expressed, no political opinions. As between parties he knew no choice. He never attempted to influence legislation by Parliament. As a smiling Prince, he officiated at endless public ceremonials and festival occasions without once making a slip in speech or bearing. One feels like making an exception of his effusive greeting of Cecil Rhodes in public when that raider came to England to stand trial. If the royal sympathies were wholly personal in that matter, they might better have been kept for private manifestation. But when all is said, there can be no question that the new King will enter upon his reign perfectly instructed in the rights and duties of an English sovereign.

His more serious difficulties will be found, not in the King, but in the kingdom. Great Britain turned the century distinctly under a cloud. Her immediate embarrassments are considerable, but it is the future to which her leading statesmen and industrial authorities look with an apprehension which they do not conceal. They dread lest the conditions which carried England to the pitch of prosperity and greatness in the nineteenth century have so changed and are changing that a decline must set in. When men so diverse as Mr. Chamberlain and Lord Rosebery, and financial and commercial organs of opinion of all shades, publicly warn Englishmen that their trade has passed its perihelion, and that rivals are more and more oustripping them in the race for industrial supremacy, it is not strange that nervousness and even pessimism mark the attitude of England confronting the new century.

In how sharp contrast all this is with the early and middle years of Victoria's reign, a glance backward is enough to show. English manufactures and commerce had had two mighty forward impulses during the past hundred years. The first came at the close of the Napoleonic wars. The Continent was prostrate, and unravaged England pressed rapidly to the front. Later came the still more remarkable expansion of commerce when England had the luck, or foresight, alone among the nations, to embrace free trade. Every wave of the sea rolled wealth upon her. Her merchants and manufacturers made Liverpool and London the centre to which the trade and finance of the whole world gravitated. And the fiscal policy of freedom was but a part of the great Liberal movement which bore English life and government forward upon its swelling tide. Mr. Gladstone wrote in 1887, in review of the half-century marked by the Queen's Jubilee, that the period had been "in the main a process of setting free the individual man." That date, 1887, may hereafter come to be regarded as England's grand climacteric. Since then have come the murmurs about the weary Titan, and the foreboding voices have swollen to the chorus which has been sounding in our ears of late.

Still, the progress of nations has always been characterized by checks and fresh starts, and in all such matters we must heed the poet's injunction to

> "——remember how the course of Time will swerve, Crook, and turn upon itself in many a backward-streaming curve."

England's resources are yet vast and her power and pride unbroken. It is not actual change and loss so much as the fear of them by which thoughtful Englishmen are troubled. We are simply pointing out that it is King Edward's misfortune to come to the throne in an atmosphere of vague despondency, rather than in that air of buoyant hope which went so well with the fresh young life of the Queen of 1837. Future reality may give the lie to present apprehensions. Wielding his mother's sceptre, the King may prove as great a friend and promoter of peace as she was, though it is hard to see how he can make good her dynastic authority and influence with so many of the reigning houses of Europe. Difficulties, many and grave, undoubtedly confront King Edward and the statesmen councillors who must guide the destinies of Great Britain; but to the manly spirit, to prescient statecraft, difficulties are but the measure of effort, and may become the measure of triumph.

A FEW FRENCH SPEECH SOUNDS.

RUTGERS COLLEGE, January 12, 1901.

It was my good fortune, last month, taking flight from the wear and tear of the winter examinations, to pay our big sister Columbia a brief visit. You remember that she welcomed us, the public, with open arms, to hear Monsieur Coquelin address the university on the subject of "Art and the Comedian."

I had come, it must be confessed, not for the purpose of soaring on the wings of the imagination into the realms of art, but largely for the very unimaginative object of listening to the speaker's pronunciation. Everybody pronounces, after a fashion, and everything is grist to the phonetic mill. So the eagerness to analyze "any old" pronunciation, begging the famous actor's pardon, rises higher and higher, and has already flooded the field of philology. As Gildersleeve said, if my memory serves me correctly, in his address before the Philological Congress at Philadelphia on "Occultations and Mutilations of Philology" (in the words of his paraphrase)—but in his own inimitable way, with just that touch of genial irony that adds zest—one may as a last resource always arouse the flagging interest of the modern philologist by introducing the subject of phonetics.

It is a difficult task to describe an unfamiliar speech sound so as to convey a correct impression to the ear of the reader not versed in phonetic lore. Let one state at length its formation by the speech organs, compare it with familiar sounds, and finally enumerate the constituent elements of the complex sound wave—and the last may be done to a very limited extent—all these expedients will probably fail to produce the correct effect on his auditory nerve. Still more crudely, one may appropriate the terminology of the fine arts. Indeed, the French symbolists assure us that sound has color. It is interesting to think of the possibilities along this line; for instance, the comparatively low rate of ether vibration which we call red might correspond to the slower atmospheric vibrations, and in the same manner the blue, on the opposite side of the spectrum, to the more rapid sound waves, let us say German *u* and *i* respectively. I fear, however, that it will be necessary to agree upon an arbitrary convention, for some of our sound colorists tell us that *i* is red, others that it is blue. So striking a disagreement of doctors is likely to prevent advance along this line.

The words of Monsieur Coquelin's title, "L'Art et le Comédien," were spoken distinctly, with a characteristically French prolongation of the vowel in *art*, followed by a gentle choking sound which serves the Parisian as an *r*. It seemed as though for a space and a half of time the voice, like a bird, hovered in mid air before swooping swiftly down. The hover, you will understand, is the vowel, and the swoop the rapid succession of sounds that followed. With what pleasure the ear clings to those none too frequent long vowels of modern French! Let the grammarian say anathema, and prove to us by citations from this and that authority that they should be no longer than our English short vowels; they who take sufficient interest in French accent, in the popular use of the term, to read thus far, either have already heard, or, barring accidents, will some time hear, on the soil of northern France, that same trumpet tone of the lengthened vowel. You know what a Yankee drawl is; it represents deliberation, sound judgment, stubbornness; it is a shibboleth to some, but music in the ears of one New England bred. It is this frequent drawl, as I have heard it in the rural districts of Maine and New Hampshire, that comes closest to the occasional long vowel of French, and indicates perhaps the strain of Dutch blood found in Celtic veins, that strange intermixture of fire and water which constitutes the Frenchman.

The *r* which was heard in Monsieur Coquelin's discourse was neither the English nor yet the Italian sound, once used exclusively in France, but one which is known as uvular, velar, guttural, *grasseyée*, or, in plain English, fat, but for which none of these terms is adequate. Uvular *r* comes nearest to hitting it, but there is a trilled and an untrilled

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variety, which this denomination does not distinguish. I was unable to decide, from where I sat, which of these was employed by the speaker, but presume the former. The uvular character is common to both. The term *grasseyée* was originally applied to the trill, and later transferred to the smooth liquid. The former is spoken in most French cities; both are general over large parts of Germany. The latter resembles, in its lack of trill, our initial *r*, as in *rose;* it would not be badly described as a smooth or untrilled uvular *r*. As one of my students remarked, it sounds a little like a *w*, as in *wed*, for instance. It adds to speech a liquid richness that familiarity renders pleasing, attractive even.

The Association Phonétique has an interesting way of indicating this delicious sound: take a capital r, R; invert it, ꓤ; now hold this before a mirror and copy. One may imagine what deep roots the phonetic fad has sent down into the minds of its devotees to survive this sort of thing. Is it, then, surprising that the fiery darts of Professor Peck have not yet quite consumed them? Yet with four distinct *r*'s claiming recognition, not including the four voiceless varieties of these, is it strange that the ordinary right-side-up, left-side-left letters were found insufficient for the emergency? It was meet that the odder symbols should be assigned to the younger members of the phonetic alphabet.

In France the uvular *r* is of recent origin. To be sure, in the sixteenth century there was in Paris a popular attempt to get rid of the strenuous trill, and for a time it was reduced to a sort of *z* sound. The Parisians said *pèse* and *mèse* for *père* and *mère*, but the rest of the nation was against them, and so they ultimately abandoned it save in a few words; *chaire*, for instance, became *chaise* in its popular signification, and remained so. Again, in the eighteenth century the firm lingual trill became in Paris a more gentle uvular trill; however, some say that the dainty *précieuses* of King Louis's time were instrumental in this change. Be this as it may, in the nineteenth century this fluttering sound, like a gurgling brook, runs into a smoothly flowing stream, unbroken by a ripple. But, just as the French poet and dramatist, particularly the former, are still fettered by the bonds of tradition, so the conscientious actor still strives to perpetuate a more conservative pronunciation and hence to employ the lingual *r*. Therefore, I fully expected to hear the latter from the lips of Monsieur Coquelin—that is, in French stage parlance, to hear him *vibrate*.

Legouvé *fils* illustrates the value set upon this vibration, in his "L'Art de la Lecture," by the following anecdote. A famous actor once described to him the strange way in which he had gotten rid of his fat *r*. He was young and talented, and was seeking at one and the same time two ends which, although equally desirable, were equally difficult of attainment, namely, the tongue-trilled *r* and the hand of a young girl of whom he was passionately enamoured. Six months of labor had brought him no greater success in one case than in the other. "L'*r* s'obstinait à rester dans la gorge, et la demoiselle à rester demoiselle." At last one fine day, or rather *evening*, after beseeching her and uttering tender vows for an hour, he touches her hard heart; the damsel says yes! Wild with joy, he leaps down the stairway four stairs at a stride, and, on passing the janitor's room, hurls at him sonorously, triumphantly: "Cordon, s'il vous plaît!"—when, what is his surprise to hear the *r* in *cordon* sound with as pure a vibration as that of the Italian *r*. Seized with sudden fear (for belike it is but a happy chance), he repeats, with the same success. There can be no doubt about it. The trilled *r* is his! And home he goes, repeating all along the way, for he was in mortal terror of losing his recent acquisition, "Cordon, s'il vous plaît! Cordon, s'il vous plaît!" Suddenly another significant event! At the turn of a street there comes forth from the sewer and runs right under his feet an enormous rat! Ha, a rat! another *r*! He adds this to the first and intermingles them. He shouts them out together. "Un rat! Cordon! Cordon! Un gros rat! Cordon! un gros rat! un gros rat!" 'Et les *r* roulent et la rue en retentit!' And he goes home victorious. He has conquered two rebels, love and *vibration*.

I do not doubt that Monsieur Coquelin *vibrates* on the stage, but it is evident that his natural *r* is now that of Paris, and that all his dramatic training has not been able to eradicate it. One does not expect, even in the natural speech of the man or woman trained for the French stage, the provincialisms of pronunciation which are found at times in *conférenciers* and *critiques* of the highest repute, such as Brunetière and Larroumet; and yet the city dialect has in this one respect, at any rate, stamped itself unmistakably upon Monsieur Coquelin. The educated Londoner rarely escapes all traces of Cockney taint, blissfully ignorant though he be thereof; his *day* has frequently a tinge of *die*, and his *boat* of *bout*. No more may the Parisian unpremeditatedly voice the sunny trill and thrill of the Italian *r* and of the fields of France. Why should we expect him to? No man *can* escape altogether the influence of his environment, even of his phonetic environment; indeed, the latter is a product of the former, so that not only does the speech of those around us model ours, but still more subtly do those influences which have gradually guided speech sounds towards a more or less stable goal, strive constantly to hold their own, in so far as they have attained this goal. Thus, the conditions found in a great city are extreme; they establish special laws of sound development. A world city is a law unto itself along all lines, intellectual and emotional, phonetic and kinetic.

Thanks to the *moutonnier* character of the French, the phonetic influence of Paris is greater than that of London; so, while one may easily offend a Londoner by intimating that his pronunciation betrays his origin, one flatters a Frenchman by attributing to him a Parisian accent. Nevertheless, "Paris is not France," and while there is, even within the city, a strong conservatism which still employs the cultured speech of other days, in some provincial cities, especially along the Loire—in Orléans, in Tours, in Blois, ancient homes of royalty—this is still more general.

They who teach this pronunciation, be they to the manner born or no, are constantly exposed to the danger of exaggerating distinctions. Time and again they find it necessary to insist that *a, ai, e, eu, o* have at least two clearly defined sounds in French; thus, *la* and *pas*, *gai* and *mai*, *nez* and *mets*, *neuf* and *peu*, *rose* and *mort*. In order to impress this fact, and to make the contrast more perceptible to the untrained ear, they magnify it. For the *e* of *fête*, there is perhaps substituted a more open sound, approaching the *ä* in German *Käse*. The unphonetic reader will readily observe a difference, if he can succeed in getting the two together in their native purity. The same danger lurks in the *o* of *hotte* and *hôte*. As for the two close sounds, *é* and *ô*, as in *lé* and *tôt*, they are rarely acquired by an American adult, and are utterly impossible to most of us; certainly there is little danger of our making them too close, unless we push them to the point of *lie* and *tout*. This is precisely what is done by a good friend of mine, who has spent some years in close intimacy with French boys in Paris, and, after all, it is a closer approximation than one usually hears. There is a tendency, also, to separate too widely the *a* and *â*, and thus *patte* and *pâle* are converted into *Pat* and *Paul*, approximately. One actually hears something very much like this in certain parts of France; but, on the other hand, the distinction between the two is entirely lost with many Parisians, and a compromise sound, much like our *a* in *part*, is substituted for both.

Monsieur Coquelin's speech avoided such extremes, however; his vowels were clearly but not pedantically differentiated. For this very reason, it is a pleasant and a helpful thing for the teacher or student of French to listen, either here or *outre mer*, to the speech of those who represent the traditions of the French stage, and therefore the best traditions of the language; it is certainly more likely to improve the "French accent" than indiscriminate association with the natives. It is difficult to maintain intact that which has been acquired in language, even in one's vernacular. Several years spent abroad sometimes affect quite unconsciously but profoundly the pronunciation; I recall the case of an Italian residence of ten odd years producing this effect. Even one or two years' foreign study is sufficient to cause subtle phonetic modifications which are none the less appreciable and persistent. We who have gone mad on speech sounds are therefore glad of the opportunity, while awaiting patiently or otherwise a larger one, to hear a pure French, fresh from the soil, such as is afforded us by the advent of a great French actor.

EDWIN B. DAVIS.

ON THE MAKING OF A NATIONAL GALLERY.

LONDON, December 20, 1900.

Rumor has reached England of a movement to establish a National Gallery in the United States. How much truth is in it, I cannot easily find out at this distance, but I hope there is some foundation in fact, so many are the possibilities presented by such a scheme. A National Gallery, started at this late date, could profit by the errors and follies of a century of almost universal national-gallery mismanagement.

In one sense America is as well provided as many European countries. For if Germany has the collections of Berlin, Dresden, and Munich; if Edinburgh and Dublin, no less than London, possess their nationally supported art institutions; if Florence and

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Venice have totally eclipsed Rome; if every provincial town in France makes an attempt, and often a very interesting attempt, to set up a Louvre and a Luxembourg on its own account—and England is trying to do the same thing—so, of course, can America boast of its numerous museums and academies in the capitals and large towns of many different States. But the nation is still without the great National Gallery which surely it is old enough and rich enough and ambitious enough to support. Nor is it too late to get together a collection that would be, as a whole, more perfect than even the most famous in Europe.

Let me explain what I mean. In certain respects, naturally, a collection made now could not approach many begun with far greater advantage. It could never rival the Prado's series of Velasquez, the Titians and Tintorettos of Venice, the Rembrandts of Amsterdam, the Turners of London, the Rubenses of the Louvre, to take the most familiar instances. But, on the other hand, there is no reason why it should not aim at the more complete representation of all countries and schools for which the London National Gallery is noted, especially if the absurd prejudices responsible for such unfortunate and unpardonable gaps in London were carefully discouraged.

This may seem a foolish excess of optimism. But consider a moment the origin and the early development of the principal national galleries. It is not possible to go into detail, but it may be stated broadly that, in the greater number, the nucleus has been formed by royal, papal, or ducal collections. Even in Paris, where the First Republic gave the Louvre to the people, the walls of the royal palace of the Luxembourg had to be stripped to insure something more than an empty value to the gift. Perhaps London is the chief exception, for when the National Gallery was founded in 1824, the royal palaces handed over none of their treasures to the country, nor were any of the castles and mansions throughout England drawn upon. Angerstein received £60,000 for his pictures, the foundation of the national collection, and the Gallery since then has served as a favorite loophole of escape from the Bankruptcy Court for lordly families—the most notorious case being the purchase by the Government of the Ansidei Madonna from the Duke of Marlborough for £70,000. As a rule, the notable bequests have come from private patrons. The drawback to the older royal collections is that, though the kings and popes and grand dukes who made them were the most discriminating connoisseurs who ever lived, yet, at the same time, they accumulated, in one way or another, a great deal of rubbish, and this rubbish, as well as the masterpieces, is to be seen in almost every gallery in Europe. And so with the private bequests, like the Vernon and many others in London, at first apt to be eagerly accepted without reservations. Is it necessary to point out the miles of commonplace, only made respectable by age, through which, everywhere, one must wade before coming to the work of the master?

Less fault of this kind is to be found with the London National Gallery than any other, though it also suffers from well-meant legacies heavily burdened by conditions. In its unwillingness to spend money on pictures—except in noble charity—the British Government has been too ready to accept any and everything offered, on any terms, and praise the generosity of the donor. The Tate Gallery—the mistaken investment of an otherwise successful sugar-maker—is one result of this policy; the pictures at South Kensington—many, however, governmental blunders—are another. Even at Hertford House, it is to be regretted that no chance of selection was left. Many real treasures have been gained, but the nation is also saddled with much that would be better hidden in cellars or stored in attics, instead of proudly displayed. Indeed, the British Government is, at last, waking up to the fact that, pleasant as it is to receive, it is not always wise.

An American National Gallery might be started free from encumbrances. There would be no Presidential collection to form the nucleus. Warned by the example of Europe, the directors would begin their work by making an absolute rule that all conditional gifts should be refused. They would reserve the right to select and reject. Then one object would be to secure the masterpiece at any price, and to include the work of only so many second and third-rate men as would insure the necessary historical sequence. They would prize bare rooms above walls crowded with repetitions of primitive cock-eyed Madonnas, and the cabinets jammed with tedious Flemish revels and Dutch trivialities that turn most of the European galleries into a weariness to the flesh, instead of the joy they ought to be. The pleasure of the art-lovers would be considered equally with that of the historian, and such discretion would be exercised that the scientific critic within the American gallery would find his occupation gone. I admit that all this suggests the coming of the millennium in museum management. But it would not be as impossible as it sounds, provided we should have the patience to foster the very slow growth of our national collection, and the sense to employ a competent director. Balancing the advantage of beginning with free hands would be the disadvantage of beginning so late that the masterpiece is no longer to be had for the asking, or the stealing—save in China. It is brought into the market rarely, and then it has its value. But, given years, I do not see why the perfect collection, for which the world has long waited, should not be got together in America—especially if our other warning be taken from European experience and policy.

At the head of South Kensington we have seen a Major-General who knew nothing of active service—had probably never known his regiment since the days when, a lieutenant, I believe, he was given a berth at South Kensington, where, leading his clerks, he gradually rose in the army ranks as he was promoted to higher and higher artistic and scientific offices. He has been succeeded by a Royal Engineer, an eminent scientist, and, therefore, presumably well equipped to guard the art interests of the Museum. We have seen the methods of another South Kensington official, an Art Referee, exposed to severe comment and searching examination, while a reproach often brought against the institution is that all its good positions seem to be regarded as, more or less, entailed in certain families. We see to-day, in charge of the National Gallery, a painter who is also Director of the Tate Gallery and President of the Royal Academy, in which capacity he is expected to produce a few pictures a year, and he would indeed be an unlimited genius if, under the circumstances, he fulfilled any one of his duties more than fairly well. He has for a keeper a man who is an estimable person, no doubt, but whose special qualifications, I fancy, could not be explained even by Mr. Balfour, to whom, through a curiously complicated business and family connection, it is rumored he owes his appointment. The British Museum has not been spared somewhat similar gossip, for it has been whispered, upon whose authority I cannot say, that if a certain man made it what it is, the family have had their reward. In command of the Irish Gallery is an amiable art critic, whose chief recommendation, apparently, was his entire colorlessness and respectable mediocrity.

I have heard the suggestion of an American National Gallery ridiculed, but I do not see why the scheme is not desirable and possible both, if a high standard be accepted from the start, and directors and officials found who would maintain it. There are, however, certain things that must be done. To begin with, the National Gallery should be in Washington. The capital of the United States, and not of any one State, is the place for it, because of many obvious reasons; one of the strongest being that a National Museum is already in existence there. Then, it would not be practical to encourage art nationally without the appointment of a Minister of the Fine Arts, though he might, as in France, be connected with Education. It would be necessary to draw up very stringent and strong rules on the same lines as those observed all over Europe. The first is, that the work of no living artist should be hung in the gallery; not until at least ten years after an artist's death should his claims be even considered. The gallery should be international, and not for the sole benefit of American artists, who, if it is to be of real excellence, must be content with the same proportion of space granted to the artists of any other nation. Unless such elementary laws were made and strictly adhered to, there would be no use in thinking about the matter. As to the Director, it is only necessary to say that he should be of upright character, wide experience, and universal artistic knowledge. He should be assisted, of course, by a Committee of Selection composed of artists, connoisseurs, and museum-keepers—not, as in England, a directorate of lords, bankers, and brokers. Unless some such course is carried out, the gallery would prove the prey of every scheming artist who could not sell his pictures. It would become a scandal, like the Chantrey Bequest, to which decrepit Academicians look as a haven of refuge for their otherwise unsalable work. The Chantrey Bequest, as administered by the Royal Academy, is the greatest artistic scandal in England.

In order to prevent such a deplorable state of affairs, the same course should be followed as in France. A supplementary gallery, modelled on the Luxembourg, should be started for living artists, and, to avoid the corruption that has made the Chantrey collection a laughing-stock, a uniform price

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should be paid for works purchased. This is the French plan. The price barely compensates the artist, but he regards it as an honor to be represented in the national collection of living artists. If he is big enough, if his work is of enough importance, he may, at times, stipulate that it shall eventually go to the Louvre. But this is not the wisest policy. Other work, bought by the state, instead of being promoted to the Louvre, is sent at once to provincial museums, and may never get even to the Luxembourg. The American Luxembourg, again like the French, should not be confined to national artists, but should be open to the artists of the world. Matters are so delightfully ordered in France that the two Paris Salons, more or less subsidized by the nation, are state-supported affairs, and it is almost solely from them that pictures are bought for the Luxembourg, though for the Louvre they are purchased wherever they can be found.

The National Gallery should also include, as in France, sculpture, engraving, medals, and a certain amount of architecture and decoration. In a word, it should be representative of the Fine and Applied Arts. But, to insure good results, there must be no confusion between a museum for the exhibition of the work of living artists and a gallery for the exhibition of the work of deceased masters. If the former only were contemplated, it would not be worth attempting, for it would lead to endless jobbery. With modifications, the French system could be carried out perfectly. We have no Salons, but we have exhibitions in at least New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Chicago; and there is no reason why, for a Luxembourg, the Government should not buy pictures from these different shows, if the money were granted by Congress. But I repeat again, if pictures by living artists are purchased, they must go into a National Modern Gallery—a Luxembourg. If, on the other hand, the larger scheme be adopted, in the great National Gallery—the American Louvre—the work of living men must be ignored altogether. It seems to me that such a National Gallery is more to be desired than a Luxembourg, for, at the present moment, the American artist, both at home and abroad, is getting as much encouragement as the artist of any other nationality—as, frequently, it is only right that he should.

N. N.

Correspondence.

THE CONSTITUTION IN THE TERRITORIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: History is said to be philosophy teaching by example. From an historical point of view, it has long been settled that, in legislating for Territories, Congress is not restrained by the limitations of the Constitution. The organic acts that have created Territorial governments show that the men who made the Constitution did not construe it as extending beyond the confines of the States. The Ordinance adopted by the first Congress that sat under the Constitution, prohibiting slavery in the Northwest Territory, was void if, in legislating for a Territory, Congress is subject to the prohibitions that apply to the States. Mr. Lincoln conceded, in the debates with Douglas and in his first inaugural, that Congress had no power to abolish slavery in a State. He did maintain, on the authority of many precedents, that Congress had such a right in a Territory. If it did possess such a right, it must be inherent in its absolute sovereignty over the domain. If the Constitution goes into a Territory, it must go as a whole. In the first Congress were sixteen members, including James Madison, who had sat in the Convention that framed the Constitution. The Ordinance was passed unanimously; George Washington signed it. The security against the abuse of the power was that it was over contiguous territory that was filling up by white immigration from the States. Every Congressman had constituents in the Territories. No express power was given to Congress to interfere with the African slave trade "so far as States now existing permitted," before the year 1808. Yet the act of 1798 for organizing the Mississippi Territory prohibited the importation of slaves from foreign ports under the penalty of a fine and the freedom of the slaves. How could Congress exercise such authority in Mississippi except on the theory of absolute sovereignty? This regulation acted like a protective tariff against Africa and in favor of the home market. If the Constitution was in force in Mississippi, the act was void. The Constitution protected the African slave trade with the States until 1808.

The act for the government of Louisiana (1803) was drafted by Thomas Jefferson and his Secretary of State, James Madison. It was reported to Congress by John Randolph of Roanoke. These statesmen called themselves strict constructionists as to all legislation for the States. They evidently thought that Congress in a Territory had plenary power "to bind and loose." The bill invested the President with the despotic authority of the Spanish Kings. When Charles the Fifth retired to a monastery, he did not lay down a more imperial power. The ordinance provided, (1) that no slave should be imported from any place outside of the United States; (2) no slave could be brought into the Territory, from any State, that had been imported since 1798; (3) it prohibited slaves being brought into the Territory except by a citizen of the United States removing there for actual settlement, and being at the time the bona-fide owner of the slave. An unnaturalized Irishman could not remove with his slaves from Virginia to Louisiana; nor could slaves be brought there for sale. The penalty for violating the law was a fine and the freedom of the slaves. If this legislation was valid—and it was never questioned—it was because the will of Congress was the supreme law of Louisiana.

The Constitution guarantees to each State —*not to the Territories*—a republican form of government. Wherever the Constitution goes, republican government goes with it. The government that Jefferson gave to the Creoles was no more republican than what we have given to the Filipinos. But Jefferson's regimen prepared Louisiana to become a State. The Philippines grafted on the Union would be the Gorgon's head on the shield of Minerva.—Respectfully,

Jno. S. Mosby.

San Francisco, January 12, 1901.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The present situation at Stanford University leads me, very unwillingly, to address a word of warning, through your columns, to the younger instructors and assistants at other American universities. It is probable that, during the next few weeks, several of them will be invited to take the places of the expelled and resigning Stanford professors. I would urge upon them not to be in too great a hurry to accept the invitation—not to do so until they have taken pains to inform themselves concerning the causes of the present crisis, and feel persuaded in their consciences that they are justified in supporting Mrs. Stanford. I do not wish to prejudge the controversy, and I am ready to grant that there may be "another side." I wish only to point out that the dismissal of the heads of two departments and the resignation of two others, together with the withdrawal of some of the younger men, constitute strong prima-facie grounds, at present, for suspecting that academic liberty is really in danger. Until this fear is removed, the acceptance of a Stanford position is in the highest degree indecorous. It cannot be necessary for me to characterize the action, should it appear that the fear is justified.

It may be said (1) that, by going to teach there a man does not necessarily take sides, and (2) that it is a pity that the work of the students should be interrupted. But (1) supposing, what is at any rate possible, that Mrs. Stanford has acted tyrannically, it is evident that the best way to educate the Stanford administration to a higher conception of a university is by the refusal of scholars outside to have anything to do with such an institution. And (2) it should be observed that it is Mrs. Stanford who has taken the initiative in interrupting the studies of the place, by the dismissal of Professor Howard in the midst of the college year, and that there are worse things that can happen to American university life than the removal of a few score of students from one Californian institution to another.

I repeat, however, that the evidence is not yet accessible by which we professors at the Eastern universities can fairly judge of the situation at Stanford. My present purpose is simply to advise men who are tempted by offers of appointment to give a thought to the larger aspects of the case, and to be quite sure that they know what they are about.

W. J. Ashley.

Cambridge, Mass., January 20, 1901.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The exact nature of what is going on at Palo Alto cannot be judged from brief telegrams at a distance. In particular, all who know President Jordan will wait, at least, for his own statement, before they will believe that he has taken sides against academic freedom of speech. Possibly the precise truth will never be widely known, just as most of us are still at a loss as to similar and recent troubles in Providence, Chicago, etc. One moral, however, we need not wait to draw.

It is said that civil engineers, graduates of the costly technical schools, are actually paid less, the country over, and have certainly a far more precarious tenure, than the mechanics who drive locomotives. The difference is largely due to a wise organic

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union in the one body and utter lack of it in the other. A causeless discharge, a cruel cut in wages, a grievous insult, cannot befall an engine-driver without precipitating war with the whole body. They are strong enough to protect all their worthy members. Discharge a civil engineer for any reason, and the public announcement only occasions a hundred applications for the vacant place.

College teachers are in quite as helpless condition. If Professor Ross has really been summarily dismissed at midwinter, for daring to express a temperate opinion as to the economic and moral value of Chinese labor, he certainly cannot appeal to any body of his peers for protection. While we claim to be the best-educated and worst-paid of all professional classes, such a lack of organization is a lasting disgrace.

The capitalists who control the railroads express, with apparent cordiality, their approval of the "Brotherhoods." Surely the trustees of colleges and universities would not oppose an organized effort to increase the independence and self-respect of their employees. Such a union should, perhaps, not actually include executive officers, for the obvious reason that those persons are necessarily in closer confidential relations as to many matters with the Board of Trustees than with their instructors. But their real personal sympathies are, in nearly all cases, with the class from which they have sprung, to which, indeed, in many cases they actually still belong.

It must be remembered that even the much criticised power of the "walking delegate" is not always, in itself, too great for an individual, or a small deliberative council, to hold. The Chicago riots found a much greater power lodged in the hands of a single fearless citizen named Grover Cleveland, and it was wielded for the public safety.

If all collegiate and university instructors were now organized for mutual improvement and protection, if the largest discretionary powers were lodged in the hands of five such men as—let us say—Woodrow Wilson, J. L. Laughlin, Bernadotte Perrin, W. P. Trent, and Ephraim Emerton, the events at Palo Alto would be immediately investigated by them. If the general cause of academic freedom really is bound up in the case, such measures as a unanimous resignation of the faculty, a general secession of the student-body, would be largely within the control of men who could be trusted to use them with fearless discretion.

Least of all men should we need to be reminded that the events of the past have a habit of recurring, with disastrous results to the dunces who have forgotten the "review lesson." An old Göttingen student will be allowed to recall the tyrannical discharge of the famous seven professors, and to rejoice that it caused a general hegira of students, and crippled the university for decades. He is blind indeed who does not see that the day is at hand, if not already come, when there *may* occur in America, here and there, attempts by wealthy founders or boards of trustees to silence real freedom of academic investigation and discussion on certain economic questions. In such cases the persecution of one is the concern of each. All studies should converge upon the moulding of fearless, open-minded, truth-loving men and citizens. No man can be a real master in science, literature, or history who does not keep this larger duty always in view. A time-serving coward cannot inculcate valor. The rights of every man or body of men rest ultimately, in large part, on the fact that he or it will fight for them, if need be. Since isolation, poverty, and many other causes tend to make us timid and weak, we should find strength and courage in union.

Perhaps such a union should at first be effected in each centre of learning, while the problem of larger affiliation is left to the future. For instance, what we ought now to desire is a frank statement from the Stanford faculty as a whole. Indeed, courageous united action by that body would right the injustice—if such it is—in a day. But, at any rate, thoughtful men will agree that a crisis like that in Hanover in 1837 would find us far less prepared, whether locally or nationally, than were or are to-day the teachers and students of imperialistic Germany.

WM. C. LAWTON.

FARM-BURNING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We all admit that war is sometimes inevitable and that it is "hell." But, without being "Quakers," we may wish to put some limits to hell-fire. Tilly and Wallenstein no doubt regarded their atrocities as mournful necessities of war. Louis XIV. regarded the ravaging of the Palatinate, and Marlborough regarded the ravaging of Bavaria, as a mournful necessity of war. Probably the soldiers of the allied armies who are ransacking, ravishing, and looting in China view their own proceedings in the same light. Lord Clyde (Sir Colin Campbell), in the war with the Sepoy mutineers, forbade his soldiers to burn a village in which one of his men had been killed, saying that it could lead to nothing but exasperation. He was not a man wanting in military vigor. To nothing but exasperation is farm-burning likely to lead in the case of such people as De Wet. The country is being laid desolate and the people are being reduced to desperation. The subjoined passages from the letter of a soldier serving in South Africa will probably suffice to put an end to prevarication about the farm-burning, and to prove that it is not confined to farms in which the white flag has been misused, or which are being used for the purpose of defence.

EQUITY.

"From that on during the rest of the trek, which lasted four days, our progress was like the old-time forays in the Highlands of Scotland two centuries ago. The country is very like Scotland, and we moved on from valley to valley 'lifting' cattle and sheep, burning, looting, and turning out the women and children to sit and cry beside the ruins of their once beautiful farmsteads. It was the first touch of Kitchener's iron hand. And we were the knuckles. It was a terrible thing to see, and I don't know that I want to see another trip of the sort, but we could not help approving the policy, though it rather revolted most of us to be the instruments. I am glad to say the artillery were exempt from it. During the days that followed, it was our duty to go into action on the hills and cover with our guns the troops who did the burning. We did not get anything like a fair share of the loot, but I don't think my men objected to that. We burned a track about six miles wide through these fertile valleys, and completely destroyed the village of Witpoort and the town of Dulstroon. The column left a trail of fire and smoke behind it that could be seen at Belfast. Some of the houses that were too solidly built to burn were blown up. Away off on a flank you would see a huge toadstool of dust, rocks, and rafters rise solemnly into the air and then subside in a heap of débris. Ten seconds afterwards a tremendous roar, like the report of a cow gun, would rend the air, and the dust would blow slowly away. Many of the houses were surrounded by beautiful gardens abloom with roses, lilies, and hollyhocks, and embowered in fruit trees. As we sat by the guns, we would see a troop of mounted men streaming off towards a farm. With my glasses I could see the women and children bundled out, their bedding thrown through the windows after them. The soldiers would carry it out of reach of the flames, and the next moment smoke would commence curling up from the windows and doors—at first a faint blue mist, then becoming denser until it rolled in clouds. The cavalry would ride rapidly away, and the poor women and children, utterly confounded by the sudden visitation, would remain standing in the yard or garden watching their home disappear in fire and smoke."

"The column marched into Witpoort, a pretty little village surrounded by hills. The guns were placed on the hills and trained on the place, and the cavalry and mounted infantry rode into it and looted and burned every house and shop, except one belonging to a British subject. The flour mill was blown up. We sat on the hills and watched the scene. When the mounted troops rode back, they looked like a gang of dissolute peddlers. Their saddles were hung like Christmas trees with shawls, clocks, mandolins, teakettles, lamps—every sort of imaginable article—besides chickens, ducks, geese, sucking pigs, vegetables, and agricultural products galore. All we gunners got was the merry ha-ha, and such unconsidered trifles as the bloated cavalry chose to donate to us."

LOWLAND AND HIGHLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reading your criticism of Lang's 'Prince Charles Edward' in the *Nation* of the 10th inst., I was surprised to notice a reproduction of the very common mistake that Scotchman and Highlander are synonymous terms. "Every Scottish lad," it is said, "grows up in an atmosphere of hero-worship for the Highlanders who charged at Prestonpans, at Falkirk, and at Culloden." The Lowland Scotch, who form more than three-fourths of the nation, differ widely from the Highlanders in origin, in language, in traditions. Every Scottish lad of Lowland origin who has read history knows what his race suffered from the later members of the Stuart family. It is well known that Prince Charles's grandfather, then Duke of York, used to sit in the Council Chamber in Edinburgh while the Covenanters were put to the torture, and kept his seat after the other members of the Council had left the room unable to bear the sight of so much agony. The great bulk of the Scottish people are Presbyterian, and they know the frightful struggle their ancestors had with the Stuarts to preserve their religion. The idea that they entertained any fond regard for the memory of the race is a myth which could find shelter only in such heads as Andrew Lang's, a man who glories in being called a mythologist, and who has devoted most of his attention to folk-lore and fairy stories. It is well known in Scotland that he never loses an opportunity to throw mud at King William, the Duke of Marlborough, and the Whig party generally. Had it not been for the successful exertions of the Whigs to expel the Stuarts from the throne, Britain would have been

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another Spain to-day, with Lang for Poet Laureate. J. G. W.

Ottawa, Canada, January 14, 1901.

[We must ask our correspondent to believe that we are quite familiar with the ethnological difference between Lowlanders and Highlanders! If we were so inclined, we might make a technical stand on a sentence in Lord Rosebery's 'Napoleon' (Harper's ed., p. 244): "The Scots are still Jacobites at heart." The adjective which we used was "Scottish." But what we really meant was that the youth of Scotland to-day, whether Highland or Lowland by origin and quite apart from political views, have an admiration, amounting to hero-worship, for the splendid courage shown by the clans during the Forty-five. We leave aside personal knowledge of national opinion, which might be challenged, and point to the influence of Lowland novelists, from Sir Walter to Louis Stevenson. They have surrounded the last Stuart rising with an atmosphere of romance. Like "J. G. W.," we feel no great fondness for divine right nor for the coercive methods which the Stuarts applied to religion—but then the Highlanders were not enlightened Whigs. They were men who grasped the ideal of loyalty and gave their lives for it. Matthew Arnold loved Oxford because it had been the "home of lost causes, and forsaken beliefs, and unpopular names, and impossible loyalties." There are still those who hold that the legitimate sovereign of Great Britain is Maria Teresa, a Bavarian Princess, descended from Henrietta, Duchess of Orleans, youngest daughter of Charles I. But this archæological fact should prevent few Lowlanders from recognizing the gallantry of the clans more than one hundred and fifty years ago. To doubt that, seems to us no less impossible than it would be to recover the cattle which the Highlanders used to "lift" from their more industrious and intelligent, though far less picturesque, neighbors of the Lowlands. As for the present feeling, a kilted regiment awakens enthusiasm, whether its recruits come from Cromarty, Lanark, or London. Scotland has many heroic memories; but no country, however divided in the past, can afford, after a lasting and harmonious union has been secured, to throw away a glorious episode like the Forty-five. The Duke of Cumberland may have had his uses in the creation, but; from what we know of modern Scottish sentiment, we very much doubt whether the Edinburgh school-boy would erect him on a pedestal to the exclusion of Lochiel. Europeans see the same thing, for does not François Coppée say of Charles Edward:

"L'Écosse ne peut pas te juger, elle t'aime"?

Scotland reveres the heroism of the Covenanters. It is our conviction that she also reveres the valor of the clans. —Ed. Nation.]

COACHING INTERCOLLEGIATE DEBATERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If the occasional criticism that appears in your columns on the matter of intercollegiate debates may be taken as evidence, there is considerable dissatisfaction with present methods, and a not unreasonable doubt as to the utility of the debates themselves. The latter question I do not wish to discuss, but I should like to raise one question concerning the methods now followed in preparation for the debates.

From time to time an unverified rumor has found its way into print, to the effect that members of the faculties of some institutions represented in the debates afford a good deal of assistance to the contestants. On the other hand, it is said that this practice does not obtain in all the institutions represented. Evidently, some kinds of aid may with perfect propriety be given. No one, for example, will be likely to object to bibliographies, however elaborate, that enable the contestants to proceed without delay to the study of the question. But systematic coaching on the question by specialists, whether members of college faculties or not, seems to some persons to afford opportunity for abuses not easy to detect, and to give an unfair advantage to one side or the other.

I am not at this moment concerned to express any opinion on the moral aspects of the question, as to what aid is permissible and what is not. I desire, rather, to call forth, if possible, an authoritative statement as to the actual practice of the institutions represented in intercollegiate debates. There will be abundant opportunity for moral disquisition by specialists in ethics after the actual facts are before us.

Respectfully yours, Inquirer.

January 22, 1901.

THE SIDGWICK MEMORIAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In speaking of the proposed memorial to the late Prof. Henry Sdgwick, in your issue of January 17, you mention his interest in the cause of the education of women as a chief reason why American students should subscribe to the memorial fund. There are other reasons, also, which are calculated to appeal even to those who never enjoyed the privilege of meeting him in his Cambridge home. Many students of philosophy, of ethics, and of economic science owe a debt of gratitude for Professor Sidgwick's published writings. But, beyond this, it is pleasant, now that he is gone, to remember how deeply he was interested in American affairs, how warmly he welcomed the era of good feeling between his country and our own, how quick and hearty were his greetings to scholars from the United States, and how generous his endeavors to aid them in securing the opportunities and facilities needed for their work. In these things, indeed, Professor Sidgwick was not singular among the English scholars of the time; but because of his winning character and personal charm, he was fitted, as few others, not only to make the visitor from across the sea at home in the older Cambridge, but also to help to knit the bonds of understanding and good will which, in the end, must prove the most potent of alliances between our kindred peoples.

This work Professor Sidgwick continued to do almost to the day of his untimely death; and because of it his memory should be honored beyond the circles of those who knew him personally, or who took a technical interest in his researches.

A. C. Armstrong.

Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., January 22, 1901.

THE WONDERFUL CENTURY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg to draw the attention of "L. N. D." (see the *Nation* of December 20, 1900, p. 489) to a book, published two years ago, viz., 'The Wonderful Century: Its Successes and its Failures,' by Alfred Russel Wallace (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.), in which the celebrated English naturalist treats in part i., "Successes," in fifteen chapters, (1) Modes of Travelling, (2) Labor-Saving Machinery, (3) The Conveyance of Thought, (4) Fire and Light, (5) New Applications of Light: Photography, (6) New Applications of Light: Spectrum Analysis, (7) Theoretical Discoveries in Physics, (8) Minor Applications of Physical Principles, (9) The Importance of Dust: A Source of Beauty and Essential to Life, (10) A Few of the Great Problems of Chemistry, (11) Astronomy and Cosmic Theories, (12) Geology: The Glacial Epoch, and the Antiquity of Man, (13) Evolution and Natural Selection, (14) Popular Discoveries in Physiology, (15) Estimate of Achievements: The Nineteenth as Compared with Earlier Centuries.

This will perhaps partly satisfy the requirements of your correspondent from Louisville, Ky. A. B. Meyer.

Dresden, Germany, January 3, 1901.

PROFESSOR HOLLAND'S 'ELEMENTS OF JURISPRUDENCE.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of December 6 the reviewer of Prof. T. E. Holland's 'Elements of Jurisprudence' complains that the Table of Cases has been left out of the ninth edition. Will you allow me to explain that this was an accidental omission, not discovered until after publication? Now, however, the "Table of Cases, English, Scotch, and American," thus unfortunately omitted, has been bound in all copies of the book in stock, and I shall, as a matter of course, supply the missing pages gratuitously to any bookseller or other person who has purchased the work. Thanking you in anticipation for allowing me to make this statement, I am, yours obediently,

Henry Frowde.

Oxford University Press,
91 and 93 Fifth Avenue, New York.

Notes.

The Oxford University Press American Branch has arranged with the Rev. F. N. Peloubet to issue a 'Teachers' Commentary on the New Testament' in ten volumes, beginning with Matthew on February 1, at a moderate price.

A new edition, revised, of Professor Bemis's 'Municipal Monopolies' is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

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Prof. William MacDonald of Bowdoin, who has been called to the chair of history vacated at Brown University by Professor Jameson, has enlarged and thoroughly revised Johnston's 'History of the United States for Schools,' and it will shortly be published by Henry Holt & Co.

The fifty-third issue of 'Who's Who,' for 1901 (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan), exhibits the incorporation of that old stand-by, 'Men and Women of the Time,' which has fairly been run off the track by its more nimble and handy competitor. Consequently we may turn to this indispensable work as confidently for McKinley and Crispi as for Chamberlain or Morley. There is still a place left, however, for our 'Who's Who in America.'

"Authentic edition" is the brand of the latest reissue of Dickens, by Chapman & Hall (New York: Scribners), in twenty-six volumes. That is to say, we have here a reproduction of Dickens's revision of 1867-'68. The rest of the story is that no work exceeds one volume (with implication of a condensed typography), and that we have the older illustrations—as, for the 'Pickwick Papers,' by Seymour and Phiz; 'Old Curiosity Shop,' by Cattermole, Phiz, and others; 'A Tale of Two Cities,' 'Nicholas Nickleby,' and 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' by Phiz; 'Oliver Twist,' by Cruikshank, etc.—while each volume so far has a colored frontispiece. The binding is simple, in green cloth. The reader will, it must be confessed, find these books somewhat bulky for the hand, but their cheapness will go to offset this.

Among the press correspondents drawn to Manila by our unhappy occupation of the Philippines, none proved himself more worthy to accept his employers' "brief injunction to tell the truth as I saw it" than Mr. Albert Gardner Robinson, correspondent of the New York *Evening Post*. His candor was everywhere acknowledged, and his self-restraint was not invisible to the initiated. Time, by not finishing up the job in the East, has preserved the interest of his letters, which might else have been relegated to the historian, and McClure, Phillips & Co. have enabled him to reprint them in a handsome volume ('The Philippines: The War and the People'), for which the historian will still be thankful, while the layman reads it for his enjoyment and better information. Mr. Robinson has wisely not attempted to rewrite or combine his current impressions, and stands by the views he expressed in February, 1900, as to the Chinese factor in our problem of dominion, and in 1899, as to Filipino capacity for self-government, and the perils of imposing American ideas "regardless of established habit, custom, and belief."

'The Hoosiers,' by Meredith Nicholson (Macmillan), is a praiseworthy attempt to demonstrate the injustice of the widespread belief that Indiana is a State where nothing of consequence ever happened, whose history is as monotonous as her prairies, and of which nobody outside of her borders ever thinks, except on the approach of a Presidential election. Mr. Nicholson shows us that there is much that is interesting about the Hoosiers. They have a history running back almost to the eighteenth century, besides certain peculiarities of dialect, and an entirely original way of playing the fiddle. He points, with just pride, to the fact that Indiana has produced such statesmen as Oliver P. Morton and Benjamin Harrison; poets like James Whitcomb Riley, and novelists like Dr. Eggleston and Gen. Wallace. These we know and admire; as no doubt we should admire Misses Mary H. Krout, Angelina Teal, Evaleen Stein, and the rest of the "Indiana choir," if we had had the advantage of perusing their works.

Edward FitzGerald's Miscellanies have been collected by Mr. W. Aldis Wright, and published by Macmillan in the Golden Treasury Series. Most of the contents have been in type before, but not in ways to attract wide attention; their known or probable dates (not here cited in every case) extend over the half-century of the author's adult life. "Euphranor" fills nearly half the little volume, and the Memoir of Bernard Barton a quarter of it; next to these come the preface to Polonius and Introduction to Readings in Crabbe. The prose pieces testify chiefly to FitzGerald's scholarship and to his regard for his friends; but in the three little poems, though apparently produced in youth, one may find or fancy a touch of the genius which blazed forth, long after, in the Quatrains. They have nothing of the fierce independence and defiant pride of Omar; but their gentle and tender melancholy is (in two of them at least) relieved by that sort of doubtful hope which is traceable under the "cheerful and jocund despair" of the later poem; so that these delicate bits of verse, discovered only some ten years ago, must be welcome to all Omarians, as not unworthy, in their modest way, to be associated with the 'Rubâiyât.'

Since Dr. Arnold's days, Rugby has held a peculiarly honorable place in the estimation of Englishmen. Eton and Harrow may be more brilliant, but for solid qualities, for public-school honor and manliness of tone, Rugby has no rival. Stories of Rugby life inevitably show the results of the Arnold tradition, which at its best produced athletic boys with a high standard of honor, and, with less favorable material, turned out a certain proportion of prigs. It is not always easy to preserve the mean as we see it in 'Tom Brown,' but Mr. A. G. Butler, author of 'The Three Friends: A Story of Rugby in the Forties' (Henry Frowde), has been fairly successful. The tale hovers between fiction and fact, and the schoolboy who reads it for stirring descriptions of football and cricket will be disconcerted at finding himself let in for a discussion of 'In Memoriam' by Clough and Matthew Arnold. Still, there are games and school rows and rivalries in plenty, and the book is a slight but faithful picture of Rugby at the time when Matthew Arnold made his short-lived essay as a master in the school under the régime of Tait, later Archbishop of Canterbury.

'Mechanical Traction in War for Road Transport' (London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Philadelphia: Lippincott) is a translation of a report, by Col. Lariz of the German army, which gives the history of traction engines and automobiles in military operations. Two were used by the English in the Crimean war, two by the Germans in the Franco-Prussian war, and twelve by the Russians in the Russo-Turkish war of 1878. In 1899 the English sent fifteen traction engines and two ploughing engines to South Africa; a special corps was organized for their operation, and they have been successfully used for the transport of baggage and gun-carriages. Lord Roberts also ordered a train of steel cars to carry ammunition and small guns, which was built in England about a year ago, and successfully drawn on common roads by a heavy traction engine. The translator has added notes regarding experiments and trials of speed, and he presents a letter from the Chief of Engineers of the United States army stating that road engines have never been seriously considered as a means of army transportation by any department of our Government.

"E. V. B.," whose rose anthology is of grateful memory, is less happy in her latest volume, 'Sylvana's Letters to an Unknown Friend' (Macmillan). The book is characterized by the same delicacy and sweetness which are so attractive in the brief preface to 'Ros Rosarum,' but, running on as it does over a goodly number of pages, it rather palls upon us. Perhaps for a garden book it is hardly earthy enough, and not quite human enough for a real collection of letters. There is an occasional error, as when the author speaks of corpse candles, saying she believes they belong to the family of Agarics. This is surprising, for "E. V. B." should know that corpse candles, like puff-balls, belong to the Gasteromycetes.

Professor Bailey of Cornell University has added another elementary botany to the list of his works. The volume at hand, published by Macmillan, entitled simply 'Botany,' is for the use of pupils, and is written in a vein intended "to expand the mind and sympathies." Accordingly, a pleasant style of presentation, both in words and in illustrations, has been provided. Indeed, in seeking to invest the subject with human interest, an occasional figure of speech has taken on a decidedly anthropomorphic stamp. The sentimental significance of the aspect of various trees has led the author to impute characteristic expressions to various forms of top and various colors of foliage. How the "language of flowers" can consistently be omitted from this volume is hardly clear. The usual chapters in books of the day on elementary botany here find place, even to the discussion of tension zones and plant societies. Why the author has seen fit to revive the defective terms "exogen" and "endogen" does not appear. The little flora closing the book includes a few of the commoner wild and cultivated plants, and will make smooth the path to the Latin name, so beset with difficulty (and with discipline) in the larger floras. Perhaps the horticultural flavor is pretty strong in the book, but high-school pupils should be instructed in grafting. In spite of these faults, Professor Bailey's enthusiasm and originality make the book thoroughly attractive.

The great activity prevailing in all departments of botanical science has rendered the existing glossaries of its technical terms more and more inadequate. Mr. Benjamin Daydon Jackson's work in the 'Index Kewensis' is well known, and the appearance of his 'Glossary of Botanic Terms, with their Derivation and Accent' (London: Duckworth; Philadelphia: Lippincott) arouses hopeful anticipations. Considering the reasonable limits of such a work, one is convinced that few terms of any importance have been omitted. Nevertheless, it is somewhat disconcerting in a book listing fifteen thousand words to find no mention of "chemotropism" and "kinoplasm." The large majority of listed words are naturally in small general use among botanists, but it is well to know where those

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words may be found which have been from time to time proposed by those who have sought to clarify and amplify the terminology of special lines of research. That the term "death-point," as used by one specialist, should need explanation seems to reflect upon some one: the glossary can scarcely be asked to furnish notes elucidating the work of individual writers. The definitions are, for the most part, clear and concise. It is inadequate, however, to define the Darwinian curvature as "effects produced on growing organs, as root tips, in consequence of irritation," or to say that "Ion is a physical term defined by J. F. Clark as the division of a molecule." The volume is compact and convenient.

The admirable series of "Oxford Classical Texts" issuing at present from the Clarendon Press includes the 'Historia Græca' or 'Hellenica,' edited by E. C. Marchant. A useful companion to this volume, published by the same press, is a 'Commentary on the Hellenica of Xenophon,' by G. E. Underhill. This work is necessarily based on the labors of Dindorf, Breitenbach, and Büchenschütz, but at the same time sums up the gist of many treatises and monographs, and offers in its introduction and appendices a careful and judicial series of discussions of the many problems that arise in connection with this most unequal and baffling narrative. After a thorough sifting of all the evidence, and especially the internal evidence, Mr. Underhill regards the 'Hellenica' as the outcome of "a diary or commonplace book" kept for nearly half a century, and worked up at irregular intervals into a more or less continuous history. This explains the unevenness and irregularities of treatment, and the shifting point of view which leads Xenophon so often "to fall between two stools." Niebuhr and Grote rated the 'Hellenica' very low—quite too low, undoubtedly—by contrast with Thucydides. But contrasted with our other sources of information—the Attic orators and even Plutarch or Diodorus—the merits of the 'Hellenica' are shining; it becomes comparatively an impartial document. The grammatical notes in Mr. Underhill's Commentary are sometimes curiously elementary; the historical apparatus and commentary are valuable and complete.

Song books for children containing music and verses are printed in all countries, but an illustrated song book of this kind (with colored pictures) is a novelty in Germany. Schott's Sons of Mainz (New York: G. Schirmer) have issued this novelty under the title of 'Unser Liederbuch.' It contains a number of tunes judiciously selected by Mrs. Friedrike Merck, arranged by Fritz Volbach, and cleverly illustrated by Ludwig von Zumbusch. The little book will find a welcome on this side of the water, where it originated, as well as on the other.

The main object of Mr. J. E. S. Moore's expedition to Lake Tanganyika in eastern Africa, described in the *Geographical Journal* for January, was to determine its geological history by an examination of its extraordinary marine fauna. This was found to be absolutely unlike the fauna of the lakes to the north and the south of it, and the conclusion was reached that the lake formerly had connection with the sea by the Congo basin. There are known to be ninety species of fishes in it, seventy-two of which are new, seventeen being types of new genera. Of these Mr. Moore added in this expedition twenty-three new species and two new genera. In an ascent of one of the ridges of Ruwenzori, which he narrates at length, he discovered that it was not, as has been supposed, a single mountain, but a long range of mountains separated by deep valleys. A brief but interesting account, from Sir H. Johnston's reports, is given of the dwarfs in Central Africa, their appearance, language, dances, and songs, for they "have a good idea of singing, and form themselves into little companies of minstrels, bearing a far-off resemblance to those of St. James's Hall." He also ascertained that there exists in their forests an animal of the horse tribe not hitherto known or described. He was able to secure only portions of imperfect skins. Dr. Nathorst sketches the history of the exploration of the coast of northeastern Greenland.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, number twelve, contains an account of a journey in the province of Shantung, China, and a description of two remarkable earthquakes in Greece. There is also a detailed notice of the first volume of the scientific results of Nansen's expedition, and some interesting facts in regard to the race strife in Macedonia. The Bulgarian propaganda seems to be declining in strength, for the official organs of the principality acknowledge that in some districts the children are flocking to the Greek schools. Attention is called to the fact that, out of forty-nine grand-viziers who ruled Turkey during its period of greatest prosperity, 1453-1623, only five were Turks! The rest were Greeks, Illyrians, Armenians, etc., and one Italian.

Students of mediæval social history ought not to allow the elaborate monograph of seventy-seven pages, by Prof. Georg von Below, in the current number (N. F., Band L., Heft 1) of the *Historische Zeitschrift*, to escape their attention. It bears the elaborate title "Concerning Theories of the Economic Development of Nations, with especial regard to the Town-Economy of the German Middle Ages"; and it need hardly be said that it has been directly called forth by the remarkable vogue so rapidly acquired by the evolutionary formulæ of Professor Bücher. The criticism they have received at the hands of Eduard Meyer, from the point of view of the historian of antiquity, they now receive from the point of view of a profoundly learned mediævalist. Professor von Below's controversial style has been chastened by time; and the reader can now take an unalloyed pleasure in the acuteness of his distinctions and the breadth of his reading. For, whatever one may finally think of his conclusions, his writings have always this merit, that they put before one the exact position of the question in contemporary scientific literature; and it is a welcome sight to find a professed historian who is so thoroughly well acquainted with the writings of professed economists, whether he agrees with them or no.

Since the newness of the subject has worn off, we do not hear much of the university-extension movement in German cities. It is gratifying, therefore, to learn, upon inquiry, that the idea continues to be fruitful in various centres of learning. As an instance, we refer to the fourth annual report of the Volks-Hochschul-Verein in Munich, according to which fourteen courses of lectures were given to more than three thousand hearers during the session 1899-1900. Of the hearers, not far from one-third were laborers and mechanics, and more than one-half students, teachers, clerks, subaltern officials, etc. Persons belonging to the former class were charged fifteen cents, those of the latter class twenty-four cents, for a course of six lectures; other persons paid three marks, or less than seventy-five cents. The lecturers included scholars of world-wide reputation, members of the faculties of the University and technical high school, and the management of the Verein is in the hands of men like Von Baeyer, Brentano, Furtwängler, Von Winckel, Von Zittel (the President of the Royal Academy of Sciences). Professor Ebert's course of lectures on electricity, and those by Professors Von Reber and Riehl on the history of art (given on Sunday afternoons in the Pinakothek), drew such crowds of hearers that hundreds had to be denied admission for want of room. It is suggested that, in the future, illustrative lectures be also given in the Glyptothek and in the magnificent new National Museum.

It will be good news to such as have found the Palazzo Piombino closed during a hurried visit to Rome, that the notable collections of antique marbles transferred thither from the Villa Ludovisi has been acquired by the Italian Government. The collection will be housed temporarily in the Museum of the Baths of Diocletian. There it will be possible to see, at all times, the "Juno Ludovisi," in plaster effigy, the divinity of Goethe's Weimar household; the "Resting Ares," the "Galatian and his Wife," and the other pieces of this famous collection. Whenever the acquisition of the Villa Borghese is finally effected by the Government, these marbles are to be permanently installed in the Casino Borghese.

The approaching celebration of the hundredth anniversary of John Marshall's accession to the Supreme Court (February 4, 1801), has been improved by C. Klackner, No. 7 West Twenty-eighth Street, to bring out a facsimile to scale of St.-Mémin's profile crayon of the Chief Justice. This likeness was drawn (with the French artist's usual appliance, the physionotrace) in March, 1808, in Marshall's fifty-third year. The background is red, and measures approximately 17x22 inches. The spirited head is life-size. The present owner of the original, Mr. Thomas Marshall Smith of Baltimore, vouches for the entire success of this striking reproduction.

A correspondent has obligingly called our attention to the fact that the proposal of President Lodge of the University of Birmingham, noticed in these columns on December 27 last, viz., that examinations should be deferred till some time after teaching ceases, has been in operation for many years in Dalhousie College, Halifax, N. S. It is there applied to students taking what are called "Special Courses for Degrees," which are planned to occupy the last two years of their college life. The arrangement, which was probably suggested by the practice of the two older English universities, is said to work well.

The Baltimore Association for the Promotion of the University Education of Women offers a fellowship of the value of $500 for the year 1901-1902. This fellowship will be available for work at either an American or a foreign university. As, in the award of this

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fellowship, preference will be given to women from Maryland, or women who have identified themselves with educational interests in Maryland, the Johns Hopkins University is again reminded of the illogical and isolated position it still occupies among the leading universities of the United States, in excluding from its graduate courses (except in the medical department) the college women of the State and city from which it receives its support. Additional value is given to this Baltimore fellowship by the statement that it "may, in exceptional instances, be held for two successive years by the same person." Applications should be presented before March 25 to any member of the committee on award, of which Dr. Mary Sherwood is chairman, and her address The Arundel.

—In a second series Mr. E. J. Payne continues the 'Voyages of the Elizabethan Seamen to America' (Henry Frowde) which he began seven years ago. Like its predecessor, this volume consists of select narratives drawn from the 'Principal Navigations' of Hakluyt. As editor Mr. Payne contributes an introduction of forty pages, besides a rather meagre stock of footnotes. An abridgment of Hakluyt may to some resemble a volume of elegant extracts from Homer, but, just as we occasionally skip the catalogue of the ships, it must be admitted that certain parts of Hakluyt may be judiciously overlooked. We use this comparison because Froude has called the 'Principal Navigations' "the prose epic of the modern English nation." Mr. Payne approaches the three large folios in the same spirit, although he recalls the very uncomplimentary phrase of Prof. William Smyth, who styled them "an unwieldy and unsightly mass." The publications of the Hakluyt Society are only for specialists, millionaires, and public libraries. The rest of us may be glad to get the best 'Voyages' in modern print and at a moderate price. Mr. Payne began with Hawkins, Frobisher, and Drake. The chief pieces in his second series are Cavendish's 'First Voyage' and Raleigh's 'Discovery of Guiana.' Along with these bulky narratives, which occupy more than two-thirds of the space, are given 'Gilbert's Voyage,' 'Amadas and Barlow's Voyage,' 'Cavendish's Last Voyage,' and, for an appendix, the singular and passionate letter wherein the dying Cavendish assails Davis when under the conviction that he has been deserted. "The *Roebuck* left me in the most desolate case that ever man was left in. What is become of her, I cannot imagine; if she be returned into *England*, it is a most admirable matter, but if she be at home, or any other of my goods whatsoever return into *England*, I have made you [Sir Tristram Gorges] only possessor of them. And now to come to that villain that hath been the death of me, and the decay of this whole action, I mean *Davis* whose only treachery, in running from me, hath been an utter ruin of all; if any good return by him, as ever you love me, make such friends as he of all others may reap least gain." Here we get the true Elizabethan, who was a good hater as well as a good fighter. Mr. Payne offers a fitting comment: "There was no cant about Cavendish. Others, in a like situation, might have thought it a Christian duty formally to forgive 'that villain that hath been the death of me and the decay of this whole action.' Cavendish merely charges his executor to see that Davis reaps as little profit as possible from his supposed treachery." From the present volume we may also give one example of the spaciousness which marked Queen Elizabeth's reign. When Gilbert was preparing his expedition of 1578 he asked for letters patent "to discover and inhabit some strange place, with special provisoes for their safeties whom policy requireth to have most annoyed, by which means the doing of the contrary shall be imputed to the executors' fault." And he got them! Every one of the relations named above is well known to students of English history, and none needs special criticism. We hope that Mr. Payne's selections may bring these classical narratives of Elizabethan seamanship to the familiar knowledge of a still wider circle.

—For the fifth time, at least, in the past 3,000 years, Singan has become the capital of the Chinese Empire. This distinction it owes to its unrivalled position in the heart of the mountains, some six hundred miles to the southwest of Pekin. Here are the only practicable passes across the range which separates northern from central and western China, and also the head of the valley which forms the great highway to central Asia. At this point two rivers unite to flow through the gate of Tung-kwan into the Yellow River, thus affording easy access to the eastern and northern provinces. Trade-routes from every direction have converged here, in consequence, from time immemorial, and made it a place of great commercial importance, famed for the enterprise and wealth of its merchants. The approach to it, says a recent traveller, is through a region which is like one continued park, with knolls and lawns and winding paths, covered with wild flowers. The city itself stands in the middle of a vast wheatfield, and is surrounded by high walls, said to be forty miles in circumference, with four huge gates, each flanked by two magnificent towers. The principal streets are well paved with flagstones, and are full of good shops, together with imposing temples and Government buildings. At that time, 1866, it was densely filled with houses, having little or no vacant grounds or gardens, and had a population exceeded in China only by Canton. A French Roman Catholic bishop resided there, who claimed that his diocese contained 20,000 native Christians. A later visitor refers to his courteous treatment by the people, who thronged the streets, and apparently had none of the hatred of foreigners, now so prevalent. No remains of ancient buildings have as yet been discovered, but in the Pei Lin, or "Forest of Tablets," Singan possesses the most valuable archæological and historical museum in the empire. These are mostly the work of scholars, and the subjects are various. Some are simply specimens of elegant calligraphy, while others represent historical scenes of five dynasties. Some are emblematical animals, sacred birds, drawings of famous mountains, and still others are likenesses of great men, including a full-sized portrait of Confucius, and several of his disciples. The most celebrated of all are the thirteen classics, cut in stone, dating from the Tang dynasty, and far anterior to those in Pekin, now so famous. Of still greater interest is the Nestorian Tablet, which was erected in 781 A. D., and found in 1625 embedded in the wall of a dilapidated temple, and is said to be the oldest Christian inscription in Asia. It is written in Syriac and Chinese, and consists of a vague abstract of Christian doctrine, an historical summary, in prose and octosyllabic verse, and a list of one hundred and twenty-nine names of Syrians and Chinese, most of whom are characterized as priests.

—During its continuous life of more than thirty centuries, an age which few cities can equal, Singan has been identified with some of the greatest men of whom China can boast, and the most glorious periods of her history. It emerges from the dim obscurity of prehistoric times under the name of Changan, "continual peace"—a name still preserved as that of one of the quarters of the modern city. In 1122 B. C. it was made the seat of government by Wu-wang, founder of the Chow dynasty, who, with his father and brother, ranked with the most distinguished men of antiquity for their erudition, integrity, patriotism, and inventions. Nearly a thousand years later, Chi Hwangti, the first universal emperor, chose it for his capital. In order to improve its approaches, he constructed magnificent roads and bridges, some of which remain to the present day. Across the narrow valleys of the mountain passes he or his successor threw suspension bridges, thus anticipating European science by twenty centuries. But his fame as the builder of these public works and of the Great Wall is eclipsed by his misdirected zeal as a reformer. Convinced that the slavish idolatry of the past which characterized his people was fatal to all progress, he ordered that every book referring to the past history of the Empire should be burned. This decree, which was almost universally obeyed, though with considerable resistance and loss of life, in all probability strengthened the national characteristic which is as powerful to-day as in his time. The fact that no history is taught in the Chinese schools later than 1644, the date of the establishment of the present Mantchu dynasty, is an apt illustration of it. At the beginning of the seventh century of our era, the greatest of all the native Chinese sovereigns, Taitsong, made Singan his capital. Here in 635 he cordially welcomed the Nestorian priest Olopun. Having ordered the sacred books which the stranger had brought with him to be translated in the imperial library, says the commemorative tablet to which reference has been made, the Emperor examined them, and, "becoming impressed with the rectitude and truth of the religion, gave special orders for its dissemination, and directed that a church be built in the square of justice and peace." In our own times the city is noted for its splendid defence in 1865 against the Mohammedan rebels, who were unable to capture it, notwithstanding the fact that among its inhabitants were 50,000 followers of the prophet. These were compelled, in order to save their lives, to renounce their faith and to place in their mosques tablets of the Emperor and of Confucius. The reoccupation of the old capital, after the lapse of so many centuries, even though it be temporary, may not impossibly presage the opening of a new and brighter era for China than that which is apparently just drawing to a close.

—That curious byway of the Greek drama, the satyric after-piece, survives for us in a single example, the "Cyclops" of Euripides,

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The play has attracted few editors, for the obvious reason that, apart from its unique position as a literary type, it cannot compare in interest with any other of the eighteen (or nineteen, if we include the "Rhesus") extant plays of Euripides. And since, in the ordinary college curriculum of classical study in America, hardly two plays of Euripides can be included, and those at the expense of more Sophocles, it is not likely that the "Cyclops" will ever be read by others than classical scholars whose independent studies have made the commentary of a college edition superfluous. Such a work, therefore, as that of Mr. John Patterson ('The Cyclops of Euripides': Macmillan) is a pure labor of love. His edition is adapted for school and college use, and includes a very readable introduction, dealing with the myths connected with the story, good grammatical and critical notes, and an index. If it supplies a want that was hardly felt, it will be of interest to many scholars, and, perhaps, even to some general readers whose knowledge of the play is confined to Shelley's translation. The Cyclops legend is best known to students of literature through the Odyssey, Theocritus, and Virgil. The brutal cannibal in the "Cyclops" of Euripides is drawn from the Odyssey, and there is little trace of the lovelorn swain of Theocritus, who "shepherded his love with song," and wished that he could carry to Galatea "either white lilies, or the soft poppy with its scarlet petals." The degradation of Odysseus, which is so noticeable in the plays of Euripides and of Sophocles, is maintained in the "Cyclops," although here and there the resourceful hero makes speeches of almost tragic dignity. The lyrics describing the pastoral life of Sicily are full of lightness and charm.

—In 'Le Soulèvement de la Flandre Maritime de 1323-1328' (Brussels: Librairie Kiessling, under the auspices of the Académie Royale de Belgique—Commission Royale d'Histoire), Prof. Henri Pirenne of Ghent has furnished us for the first time with an exact and complete copy of one of the most important documents relative to Flemish history in the Middle Ages. This is the 'Book of Inventory of Hereditaments of Flemings Slain in the Battle of Cassel, 1328,' of which the unique original is preserved in the National Library at Paris. M. Mannier, its first editor, in 1863, printed the list of personal names, but altogether omitted the accompanying list of properties. After most of the names occur such statements as these: "1 manoir et 18 mesures de terre," or "2 lines de terre, item 1 mesure de fief," or "1 maison et 1 quartier de terre," or the like. It is evident that this is the most valuable part of the record, and M. Pirenne has facilitated its use by a geographical table, and by a number of statistical summaries. In his interesting introduction, Professor Pirenne gives his own version of the Peasants' Rising in Western Flanders, which was crushed in so sanguinary a fashion in the battle of Cassel. It was not, he holds, a national revolt against French domination; it was a social movement, which had for its object the destruction of the nobility. But, although this was so, it must not be compared to the Jacquerie a few years later in France. It was not a rising of despair, the outcome of starvation or grinding poverty; on the contrary, the peasants of that part of Flanders were particularly well-to-do, and their leaders belonged to the middle class. In the historical explanation which the editor attempts of the existence of this relatively free and prosperous peasant population, there is much that is still obscure, but doubtless the conditions in 1323 were such as he describes. In Flanders, as in England in 1381, it would seem that the spread of the doctrine of equality had a good deal to do with the insurrection.

HENRY GEORGE.

The Life of Henry George. By his Son, Henry George, jr. Doubleday & McClure Co. 1900.

The author of this biography has certainly one qualification for his task—that of complete sympathy with the purposes and ideas to which Henry George devoted his life. Those who share this sympathy could hardly ask for a more enthusiastic tribute to the memory of their leader, or one that should chronicle with more loving care every little detail of his personal history. Moreover, in this case the glamour which influences filial piety tends rather to reveal than to conceal the truth. When the biographer regards every trait of his hero as excellent, and every act as memorable, he is under no temptation to extenuate what seems blameworthy, or to omit what might arouse hostile criticism. We do not hesitate to say that whoever wishes to know what manner of man Henry George was, can by reading this book satisfy his curiosity as well as he could have done by meeting him face to face.

Taking a dispassionate view of the man and his work, we cannot resist the conclusion that his life furnished the refutation of his theories. He planned a social revolution in the name of justice; and he must be taken as a type of the class of men who would administer such a revolution were it to come to pass. He had excellent natural abilities, and the influences of his home appear to have been elevating. Of his mother it is impossible to speak without reverence, and all the members of his family were devoted to him. Nevertheless, as a boy, he seems to have had little disposition to make a profitable use of his time, or to do credit to his breeding. If not dissolute, he had dissipated habits, and spent his earnings with a gang of roysterers for drink and tobacco. He went to sea before the mast, and on his return worked at type-setting from time to time, his employers not finding it desirable to retain his services permanently. He secured an appointment as ship's steward on a naval vessel, with good prospects of advancement, but deserted as soon as he reached California. He started for the Frazer River gold-fields, but got only as far as Victoria, where he obtained a place in the store of a relative, toward whom, according to his own account, he "behaved badly." He soon drifted back to San Francisco, but found no better means of support than occasional jobs of type-setting.

Again he started for the gold mines, but had to return to San Francisco as a tramp, and fall back once more on type-setting, a trade by which he was able to earn a living when he kept at it. Then followed a number of journalistic ventures, which were invariably unsuccessful. In the depths of adversity and embarrassed by the debts that he continually incurred, he nevertheless borrowed the money to contract a runaway marriage, which, however, proved a happy one. Under the pressure of new responsibilities, he worked at type-setting with unusual persistence, and actually saved a little money. A few gambling ventures in mining stocks quickly caused it to vanish. After this came a period of privation, almost of starvation; in fact he was at one time impelled to stop a stranger in the street and demand $5 of him. The stranger complied with the demand; had he not, Mr. George tells us, "I think I was desperate enough to have killed him." At last the uses of adversity became manifest, and Mr. George wrote an essay, "On the Profitable Employment of Time," which contains as much wisdom as some of his later productions. In this essay he observes that he has not employed the time and means at his command faithfully and advantageously, as he might have done, and consequently, that he has himself to blame for at least a part of his non-success. He continues:

"The hours which I have idled away, though made miserable by the consciousness of accomplishing nothing, had been sufficient to make me master of almost any common branch of study. . . . My efforts in any direction, save the beaten track in which I have been used to earn my bread, are, when perceptible, jerky, irregular, and without intelligent continuous direction. . . . I am constantly longing for wealth; the wide difference between my wishes and the means of gratifying them at my command keeps me in perpetual disquiet. . . . It is my principal object in life to obtain wealth, or at least, more of it than I have at present. . . . But, always wishing for some chance to make a sudden leap forward, I have never been able to direct my mind and concentrate my attention upon those slow processes by which everything mental (and in most cases, material) is acquired."

These reflections led to some serious attempts at writing for publication—attempts which brought prompt recognition, and laid the foundation for such literary fame as was later obtained. For some time newspaper reporting and editorial work were industriously pursued, debts were paid off, and the possibility of opening a bank account was considered. But more speculative occupations soon restored the normal condition of impecuniosity, and resulted in such discomfort as convinced Mr. George that something must be radically wrong in the constitution of a society wherein his desire for wealth failed so miserably of gratification. Gradually the notion became clear to him that poverty was not due to indolence, improvidence, dishonesty, and incapacity, but to the appropriation of the land, and this idea was ever after the *leit-motiv* of all his outgivings.

He had already taken part in the political contests in California, and been aroused to wrath by the unscrupulous conduct of some of the wealthy magnates of that State. It happened that the faction to which he had given his support was successful, and Mr. George felt no scruple in trying to obtain through the institution of government that wealth with which the individual members of society had not recompensed his exertions.

"I wrote," he tells us, "to Gov. Irwin, whom I had been instrumental in electing a few months before, and asked him to give me a place where there was little to do and something to get, so that I might devote myself to some important writing. He gave me the office of State Inspector of Gas Meters, which yielded, though intermittently, a sufficient revenue to live on, and which required very little work."

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This office was regarded as "one of the most lucrative within the Executive gift," and Mr. George procured an amendment of the law which greatly increased his official gains. He might now have established his family in comfort, but "the wish to get beyond the anxieties of a hand-to-mouth way of living" drew him into "mining investments," and, in spite of his wife's advice to gamble in nothing but newspapers, he "invested" in various bonanzas in 1872, and again in 1875, with the same result that attended all his business enterprises. Unfortunately, the bonanza of gas-meter inspection had also ceased to be "lucrative"; but 'Progress and Poverty,' the book destined soon to be famous, had been written, and the doctrine so eloquently set forth therein made for the author friends who saw to it that his pecuniary needs should be supplied. His future was assured, and, as a social and political agitator, he soon exercised an influence (abroad as well as in this country) which was phenomenal. Not a few of his converts were men of distinction, some of them were sincere reformers, and many who could not altogether accept his creed gave him their support from sympathy with the generous aims which he professed. Many a victory did he win over those who attacked him with insufficient equipment, and some of his most brilliant work was done in exposing the fallacies of those who attempted to penetrate the joints of his armor. But his later career is still within the recollection of the public, and calls for no comment here.

We have dwelt at length on some of the sordid particulars of this life, because, as we have said, they explain why Mr. George's plan for equalizing wealth met with little support among the sober-minded. Theoretically, the plan was attractive and far from unreasonable. It might have been made the basis of a comprehensive reform in taxation. It was urged with undeniable power and with genuine eloquence. But it contemplated the violent suppression of one of the oldest and most widely diffused forms of property, which was bound up with the family, and indeed with most of our fundamental institutions, so intimately as to place the idea of its abolition quite outside of the grasp of ordinary minds. It is conceivable that, under some circumstances, substantial people might give their consent to a revolutionary change in the system of land tenure which they had been brought up to regard as part of the constitution of the universe, even if they did not comprehend it. Some one combining the lofty character of Washington with the practical sagacity of Franklin might persuade even conservative men to intrust the welfare of the country to the managers of a "blind pool." But confidence has its limits, and no amount of eloquence will convince responsible people that it is wise to risk the prosperity of the country by adopting the counsels of a leader whose private undertakings have invariably resulted in disappointment and ruin. Certainly no one acquainted with Mr. George's financial record would put money into any enterprise which he was to manage, with any expectation of getting it back again; and his promise that poverty would disappear if property in land were confiscated, was evidently not believed by the community.

But the most conclusive refutation of his prophecies was furnished by his action in securing a lucrative public office in order to further his private ends. The whole gist of his scheme lay in the transference of rent from the landlords to the people. Such a transfer must necessarily be invidious. It would give great opportunities for peculation and extravagance on the part of the officers of government; and Mr. George illustrated the manner in which these functionaries might divert the revenues of the landlords into their own pockets. The number of citizens trying to get places where there is "little to do and something to get" is infinite. The number of places of this description is large and constantly increasing. Their multiplication is one of the greatest hindrances to the improvement of the condition of the common people. Our landlords may or may not be a useful social class, but they compare favorably with our politicians. Until we have more assurance than our present condition—and Mr. George's example—afford that the revenues of the landlords will not be appropriated by the politicians, common sense will not expect the millennium to follow the abolition of property in land.

SHAFTESBURY.

The Life, Unpublished Letters, and Philosophical Regimen of Anthony Earl of Shaftesbury, Author of the 'Characteristicks.' Edited by Benjamin Rand. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1900. 8vo, pp. xxxi, 535.

Characteristics of Men, Manners, Opinions, Times, etc. By the Rt. Hon. Anthony Earl of Shaftesbury. Edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by John M. Robertson. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1900. 2 vols. 8vo. Pp. xlix+338, viii+275.

Shaftesbury, the third of that title and moralist, not only was educated and reared upon philosophical principles, but was veritably bred philosophically. For, his sire being about sixteen years old, the grandfather, that extraordinary man, Ashley Cooper, then Lord Ashley, dispatched the philosopher Locke into the northern counties to select a mother for the future head of his house. A great fortune was not required, but she was to be of "good blood, good person and constitution, and, above all, good education and a character as remote as possible from that of a court or town-bred lady." She was found in the person of a daughter of the Earl (afterwards Duke) of Rutland. The marriage took place September 22, 1669, and the moralist was born February 26, 1671, his father being then nineteen years old. He was immediately taken in charge by his grandfather, by whom his education was intrusted to the absolute direction of Locke. The result of this curious experiment was that the scion turned out to be a man of weak constitution, but strong character, a perfect Whig, a highly accomplished gentleman, a forcible writer. But his master passion was a love of virtue, as taught by Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius.

Dr. Rand has discovered, among the Shaftesbury papers in the Record Office, two note-books filled with meditations by the moralist for his own edification, and gives them here apparently complete. They fill 272 pages of the volume. Dr. Rand has entitled this matter "The Philosophical Regimen," but Shaftesbury himself headed it Ἀσκήματα, *i. e.*, Training Exercises. Words cognate with this were commonly used in Greek by those who adhered to the Socratic opinion that virtue is a thing to be learned. But Shaftesbury, broadly dividing all ancient philosophy into that of stoical and that of Epicurean color, no doubt wrote this word at the head of his meditations as a sort of general stoical confession; and Dr. Rand pronounces that the Phrygian "slave, the Roman emperor, and the English nobleman must abide the three great exponents of stoical philosophy." This dictum ought certainly to be modified; for the first two are not exponents of stoical philosophy at all; they are simply stoical moralists. They rarely touch upon the philosophy which made so large a part of stoicism; and where they do so, they are as often as not heretical. As for Shaftesbury, he accepts, of course, to begin the account, all those stoical ideas which have become assimilated into the common sense of the modern European. His usual method of reasoning by means of divisions and reductions to the absurd is also in the stoical style. But to the rest of the elaborate stoical logic he makes little allusion, and that little is rather depreciatory. Of that epistemological pragmatism which is near the root of stoicism, he shows, neither in the 'Characteristicks' nor in these new Ascemata, the smallest comprehension; but that is not surprising to us when we have seen the best historians of ancient philosophy puzzled and led astray by the doctrine.

To the germinal conviction from which stoicism springs, that the only end of man lies in action, and that knowledge, as such, is an idle accomplishment, Shaftesbury may be said to be more faithful than Zeno and Chrysippus ever were. Questions that excited the deepest and liveliest interest under the Poecile, even that of a future life, are dismissed by him with a cold shoulder and the question, How does this concern me? The same spirit manifests itself in his characteristically stoical taste for allegory and emblems; and, notwithstanding his long studies of art in Italy, the now published letters show him attaching great importance to the vignettes that ornament the 'Characteristicks,' which, though pretty, are the flattest of far-fetched symbols, betraying a heart that, even after long familiarity with art, can value it only as a means of calling attention to homilies. It is no wonder that we find in such a writer few traces of the materialism of the stoics or of their other purely metaphysical opinions, beyond those that have passed into the common traditional ways of thinking. Among those may be reckoned his conception of God, and the particular shade of optimism which is symbolized by the cobweb in the vignette to the second volume of the 'Characteristicks,' showing now flies have been created for the benefit of spiders. In regard to the freedom of the will, his position appears to be that of orthodox stoicism.

Just as his too sincere acceptance of the vital principle of stoicism makes him a bit of a heretic among stoical metaphysicians, so his thorough acceptance of the great maxim of stoic morals—Follow Nature—causes him to diverge considerably from stoical apathy. The newly discovered Ascemata are stuffed full of quotations from the ancients, the great majority of them from three men whom Shaftesbury seems to have regarded as the great depositaries of the art of virtue. Two of them are Epic-

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tetus and Marcus Aurelius; the third is a Latin author. The reader, we will wager, is jumping to the conclusion that it is Seneca. Not exactly, it is that stern moralist Quintus Flaccus. On the sole occasion when Shaftesbury's disciplined intellect plays truant and goes chasing the butterfly knowledge for knowledge's sake, it is in seeking to prove to the Lockian logician Le Clerc that Horace was first and last a consistent stoic, and that it was only for a brief intermediate period that he was led away by Mæcenas towards Epicureanism. One sadly fears that the poet's gentlemanly grace has quite blinded and well-nigh seduced the innocent Shaftesbury. At any rate, what Shaftesbury understands by following nature is not at all the suppression of all emotion, but just such a degree of emotional lukewarmness and good-humored composure as the hedonistic Horace loved to parade. For all that, human nature is not capable of greater earnestness than Shaftesbury's in his quest after the highest virtue. We feel it in the style of the 'Characteristicks,' and it is proved to demonstration by the newly published book. Thus, we find that Shaftesbury had developed a kind of stoicism of his own. It was not a particularly profound kind, philosophically considered; yet the new publication is likely to prompt fresh studies of stoicism, to a better comprehension of what it was in the school at Athens, and also of what development it is capable in a modern intellectual climate.

The letters of Shaftesbury which Dr. Rand has printed fill as many pages as the Ascemata. Many of them are of interest in reference to his own philosophy, especially in relation to that of Leibniz. His regard for his master, Locke, led him to conceal his pretty thorough dissent from Locke's great masterpiece; and it was only toward the close of his life, in 1709, that he confided the true state of things to one person in a letter here given. A number of letters addressed to Locke show Shaftesbury's personal veneration and affection for the philosopher. There are also many political letters which show his inherited Whiggism, coming as near to a passion as stoicism would permit, and the effective blows that he was able to strike for true liberty. Other more personal letters are by no means the least significant in studying his philosophy, and go to increase our esteem for his conception of morals. The same is true of his letters to his protégés. But those to Thomas Micklethwaite are of interest for other reasons.

Dr. Rand has done his work very diligently. To the innumerable Greek and Latin passages he has appended translations, and has usually stated where they are found. It is to be regretted that he has not supplied the volume with an index. The portrait is a reproduction of a worn impression of the frontispiece to the 'Characteristicks.'

Messrs. E. P. Dutton & Co. present us with a very beautiful reprint of the 'Characteristicks,' with a readable and, on the whole, instructive introduction by Mr. J. M. Robertson. It is the first edition that has appeared for over a century. The reason is obvious. The number of persons who care to study an exploded theory of morals is small; and those few will prefer Hutcheson's exposition. Or, if they must have Shaftesbury, there were four old editions, superbly printed, and often magnificently bound, extremely accurate, and with the vignettes and other minutiæ which were so important in Shaftesbury's own estimation; and these are still easily procurable at low prices. It is true that all the editions before the fifth omit the "Letter concerning Design," which Shaftesbury intended should be included, and which (all the more because of its philistinism) throws an important light upon his ways of thinking. But then, this is omitted in the new edition as well. Mr. Robertson's introduction contains a number of statements and expressions which we may believe he would have modified had he been acquainted with the contents of Mr. Rand's volume; such, for example, as the notion that the least metaphysical of moralists was chiefly influenced by the most metaphysical, Spinoza. But, that corrective being now at hand, the value of Mr. Robertson's introduction depends upon its positive merits, not on its errors. Its discussion of Shaftesbury from a literary point of view is fairly good, not fully doing justice to his extraordinary earnestness, emphasizing a little too much his fashionableness, his earldom-ness (though this is somewhat obliterated by the modernization of Shaftesbury's peculiar spellings and other little idiosyncrasies which disappear in the reprint), but, nevertheless, bringing to light a number of points which the student of Shaftesbury will be glad to have so clearly put before him; and, on the whole, well characterizing the celebrated characterist upon his literary side.

RECENT FICTION.

In the Palace of the King. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan.

Old Fires and Profitable Ghosts. By A. T. Quiller-Couch. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Chloris of the Island. By H. B. Marriott Watson. Harper & Bros.

Visiting the Sin. By Emma Rayner. Small, Maynard & Co.

Story of a Spy in the Civil War. By B. K. Benson. Macmillan.

Mr. Crawford's romance of Spain wears the air of practised acquaintance with country and costumes and manners that pervades his stories of Italy, of America, of India, of the world at large. He has a marked talent for assimilating local color, not to make mention of a broader historic sense. Even though he may adopt, as it is the romancer's right to do, the extreme romantic view of history, it is aways a living and moving picture that he evolves for us, of which we do not ask that it be true so long as it is interesting. The events of the novel under consideration are those of a single night in the palace of Philip II. of Spain. Though they are varied and stirring, they could hardly have filled an entire volume had not the author freely exercised another of his conspicuous talents, that of leisurely descant. Events rush in old Madrid; but between actions writer and reader might be sipping coffee under a tree. Homilies on love, on blindness, on dwarfs, on the honor of soldiers and the etiquette of the Spanish Court, act as sedatives between thrills. A discourse on the *pavana* while one waits to know if the hero is fatally stabbed keeps the pulses steady. Philip II. has no apologist or modern reconstructor in Mr. Crawford. Not one of the imputed misdemeanors or crimes of history or rumor is omitted from the damning catalogue of his villanies, whether it be his very unpleasant manners or the death of Don Carlos. Don John of Austria, the hero of the night's adventures, is made as heroic and spotless as the heart of novel-reader could wish. There is, indeed, a comforting absence of half-tones in the picture, that is exceeding peaceful to the complication-tossed reader of the novel of muddled motive.

'Old Fires and Profitable Ghosts' consists of stories of "*revenants;* persons who, either in spirit or in body, revisit old scenes, return upon old selves or old emotions, or relate a message from a world beyond perception." Mr. Quiller-Couch here, as ever, is the master of an exquisite art. Rarely absent from his work, we think it more persuasively present when his revenants are bodily than when they are spiritistic. In spite of his ghosts being introduced as "profitable," we find them on the whole less so than the "Old Fires"—and, moreover, less imaginative. Every-day material, as this accomplished writer treats it, is weird enough and poetic enough without his summoning the supernatural to its intensifying. We are not sure that there does not lurk a subtler thrill in the figure of the Prophet Elisha in his old age coming painfully over the rough mountain path to the Plain of Jezreel and meeting again the Shunammite woman, than in the ghostly night ride of the living man and his dead friend into the place of departed spirits. "The Penance of John Emmet," though told with more clumsy involution than is the wont of "Q.," is a story that strikes home as true to the point of inevitability. "The Lady of the Red Admirals" is a charming example of the author's lighter touch at its best. "The Singular Adventure of a Small Free-Trader" is another. In one of the sketches the Wandering Jew appears in Cornish setting, wearing the new form with the old fascination. But whichever story makes the closest appeal to the reader, he will hardly fail to find somewhere the power, poetry, and dramatic instinct without morbidness of which a book by this writer always holds the promise.

Like "Q.'s," Marriott Watson's book deals with the place and the day when smugglers were politely called free-traders, but the mode of treatment is as different as possible. 'Chloris of the Island' begins with an elopement, and progresses to a tavern brawl. Next, the island looms in view with its caves devoted to smuggling and treason; and for the rest of the long novel we are kept in frantic chase from island to mainland and back, by sail and oar, by swimming in and under water—not plain water, but whirlpools—pistols at the back, quicksands in front, daggers and vengeance on all sides; the beautiful Chloris, now hostile, now friendly, acting as motive for the hero's deeds of alternate detection and protection. For land experience there is perpetual scurrying over sand-dune wastes, with a convenient cottage on the dunes where the heroine may intelligently leave the incriminating letter from Bonaparte intrusted to her by the hero to be destroyed; no reasonable cause appearing for this sensible action except that there may be one more sandy tramp, and that the insisted-on cottage may be the background for the villain's last appearance. The tale of adventure is surely growing a little preposterous.

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Yet, with a certain amount of sifting, this might be a fine wild tale of a fine wild Irish family gone wrong. The hero's domestic happiness, to be sure, is hardly beyond question with a wife to whom, in the climax of courtship, he feels impelled to say: "I am not used to these storms, and, by God! they are wearisome." But with that we need not concern ourselves since it is the author, and not we, on whom rests the responsibility of ordering the wedding-coach for London far from the madding crowd of smugglers, gunpowder-barrels, and dunes. And the very excess of salt-water soaking, sand-hill climbing, thunder-storm drenching, woods-scouring, may serve a beneficent purpose in putting the story beyond the chance of dramatization. A perpetually wet hero is not for the stage, though, to be sure, the illustrations represent him as point-device after the most absorbent swimming.

Caves and mysterious forest adventures flourish luxuriantly, too, in 'Visiting the Sin.' The groundwork of the story is the mass of superstition and tradition that in 1875 prevailed in the more inaccessible parts of Kentucky and Tennessee, and stood uncontroverted for a creed to the mountaineers. The universality of these beliefs, the old-witch stories and usages, the blending of a rude sort of religion with the lust of blood, are strikingly indicated as by one familiar with her theme. The story has considerable power, and would have more if it were less repetitious as to both incident and description, and if there were cut out from the 450 pages some of the irrelevant episodes. Naomi's first great mistake was natural, and led naturally to tragic consequences. To make her repeat that mistake is a grave error in perspective on the part of her designer. Similarly, there is lack of invention in putting most of the rescuing into the hands of small boys. The merit of the dialect must be judged by experts, but to the average dog on whom such food is tried it would seem strange that the girl who at one time says, "Ain't you got any sense?" should at another achieve the following query: "Where, in this case, do your astute eyes discover the head of the murderer, which is to prove a target for a too highly educated popular morality?" We have touched on some of the weak points of the book, and return in conclusion to its real merit as a picture of a by-gone semi-civilization.

Two classes of readers will find in Mr. Benson's 'Story of a Spy in the Civil War' much that is entertaining. Those who like to recall the inside experience of the army line, which is seldom touched by war histories, but is mostly preserved in the lore of old soldiers' home talks and of Grand Army "camp-fires," may seek here effective pictures of the every-day toil, drudgery, and daring of the campaigns of the first three years of the civil war, especially among the spies and scouts upon whose love of adventure and willingness to assume great risks for patriotic ends much of the success of the generals' plans depended. While the narrative has this army world for its scene, its central motive is for the deliberation of persons who are attracted by questions of the mystery of mind, in the presentation of the remarkable double consciousness of Jones Berwick private in the Eleventh Massachusetts Infantry, who, as the result of an accident of his boyhood, was liable to attacks of disease which destroyed the larger part of his memory, especially of events and personages of recent acquaintance. Such a loss of his old consciousness befell Berwick one day, in the summer of 1862, when he was exploring the Confederate lines in search of information for McClellan; and when he awoke from the effects of a concussion of cannon-shot, he had no knowledge of his identity or previous history, insomuch that the only means of placing him were his Confederate uniform and the accompanying papers which served the uses of his scouting disguise. Upon the strength of these, Jones Berwick of the Massachusetts regiment became Berwick Jones of the First South Carolina Infantry, and in that capacity, after due instruction as to the aims and inspiration of the Confederacy, he fought ardently until his slowly awakened first consciousness returned to drive him back to his old friends in the Union lines. The occasional hints of possible occult gifts in the mind of Berwick's guiding genius through most of his metal tribulations (one Dr. Khayme) do not develop into any mystical elements which disturb the simplicity and verisimilitude of most of the narrative, whose art is such that the reader may be in doubt whether the tale is pure fiction or essentially a biography of an actual life.

The Real Chinese Question. By Chester Holcombe, for many years Interpreter, Secretary of Legation, and Acting Minister of the United States at Pekin. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1900. Pp. 386.

Mr. Holcombe's introduction argues that our prejudice against Chinese idiosyncrasies is little less than theirs against ours. When we think we understand their ignorance, we are ignorant of their understanding. He says, "They need machines to make work, not to save it." The reviewer was with a Chicago machine-maker who, when we called on the head of a factory in Hankow, persuaded him to purchase a machine which would save nine-tenths of the labor in a certain process. Three years afterward the Chicagoan's partner was there, and visited the factory. He found the customer satisfied with his purchase, but was pointed to the machine still standing in its original packing-case. "It is most valuable," said its owner, "where it is. Pointing to it with a threat of putting it in operation strikes with panic, and puts an end to all labor troubles with operatives." That labor-saving devices mean for the moment starvation was made clear to the reviewer as he approached Canton and met a steamboat without any engine, because its wheels were set at work by fifty or more men trampling with their feet on a tread-mill contrivance which covered half the deck.

The subsequent chapters treat of Chinese character, literati, societies, army, navy, opinions about strangers, the missionary, diplomacy, opium, foreign aggression, projected partition, and hoped-for reform. Few travellers in the Far Orient and much fewer home-keepers can read any one of these sections without a distinct feeling that they have learned new facts and ideas as well. The chapter on opium will give a typical taste of the author's quality. Opium is there gibbeted not only as the greatest domestic curse, but as the root of all evil in the foreign relations of China. Up to 1775, that weed had not been used to any appreciable extent. Laws forbidding the culture, import, and consumption of it have always been made and executed by the Government as far as possible. But illicit commerce, begun in 1773 by the East India Company, grew with such rapidity (thanks to clipper barks making the most of every sequestered landing) that China soon became the chief outlet for the product of India. Individual cunning, force, and bribery were not wanting, but the arch-smuggler was the British Government, which, practically absorbing the India Company, carried on its death-dealing work to a belligerent consummation. Its excuse for this wrong was the need of the lucrative export tax and of a market for the India drug. In the long run, Britain's loss was more than her gain. China's output of tea and sugar no more than balanced her outlay for opium, while no pound of that intoxicant failed to cripple the ability of more than one native for buying the manufactures which came mainly from Britain. Besides, the seventeen hundred thousand acres which Hindoos set apart for poppy culture might have yielded a nourishing crop that would have lessened the census of famine victims by more than one million. In 1839 the Chinese sovereign dispatched his ablest functionary to Canton to stem the stream of poison that was pouring in there, and his parting words are said to have been: "How can I die and meet my imperial ancestors until this direful evil is removed?"

Commissioner Lin was invested with the most unqualified authority ever conferred upon a Chinese subject (p. 259). The vice-gerent proved so incorruptible as to scorn the bribe of a thousand chests of opium, and energetic enough to destroy more than twenty times as many, as well as to extort from British smugglers written engagements that they would sin no more against the laws of the land. The opium war which followed was ended in 1842 by China (at the cannon's mouth) paying twenty-three millions of dollars as indemnity to Britain, and ceding to her the most opportune stations in the Chinese domain for smuggling. Another war, growing out of China's endeavors to execute her laws against opium smugglers, broke out within twenty years, and in this struggle a principal agent was Sir John Bowring, who wrote the hymn "In the Cross of Christ I Glory." He bombarded Canton, and would have laid it in ashes had it not been ransomed by a more enormous treasure than it was thought could be paid. The reviewer has there drunk tea with a mandarin whose father, How-Qua, according to popular report, was then mulcted of a million dollars. The outcome of this war was the capture of Peking, the looting of the Emperor's summer palace, the legalizing of opium import, and its obstruction by a merely nominal tariff. The British had allies in this invasion, but were mainly blameworthy in Chinese eyes. They alone raised opium as a staple crop. It was they who had first and chiefly put opium into Chinese mouths to steal away their brains and transform them into beasts.

A more touching story was never told than the plain tale of a personal appeal, before the second war, from the imperial family and cabinet to Queen Victoria. In 1868 they sent a letter beseeching her, in the name of a common humanity, to agree with the Emperor on measures by which the baneful

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traffic might be brought to an end. That this letter reached her Majesty, the Chinese, after an ominous silence, were informed by the British Minister through whom it had been transmitted, but that no answer had been made, and he added that none might be expected. "To the everlasting shame of the British nation," writes one of the Queen's Counsel, "no answer was ever made." Mr. Holcombe describes one of the literati whom he saw at an open-air meeting with a tiny jar in his hand and the stain on a finger which betrays slaves to narcotic poison, who soon turned away with a scowl, muttering, "Take away your opium and then talk of your Jesus."

In Mr. Holcombe's view, there can be no partition of a people who number a fourth part of the human race, who have no geographical lines of cleavage, and who, against such an atrocity, are united like one individual soul. Nor can they fail of a grand development, being in no element moribund or decadent, but of most perdurable toughness. They will gridiron their empire with railroads as swiftly as they have just forested it with telegraph-poles. They cannot long be held in leading-strings, and will shake off shackling fetters. The masses are not opium slaves. Their business firms have never tolerated opium-eaters, and governmental reform will start by holding the use of that poison to disqualify for appointment to any public office.

If wicked outsiders will not cease from troubling, let them beware lest Mr. Holcombe's forecast prove true:

"The Chinese is not in love with the European, and there is no reason whatever to expect that he could be easily brought to call him master. One thing he might do. He might take somewhat readily to the profession of arms, for he possesses all the natural qualities of a good soldier. He might submit to all the drill and study involved in the modern science of war until expert with the sword, and then, when in his judgment the time had come, thrust it into his instructor and oppressor" (p. 348).

Mr. Holcombe has seen as fine a body of men under arms in China—saving only the lack of officers—as can be found elsewhere (p. 129).

Songs of Modern Greece. Edited by G. F. Abbott. Cambridge (Eng.) University Press; New York: Macmillan.

This is an attractive little volume of lyrics well chosen and edited on a sensible plan. Each song is provided with an introduction and sufficient notes, explanatory or etymological, and is accompanied by a literal translation. The result is, that any student of ancient Greek will find here an excellent introduction to the vernacular in which the ballads are written, and will soon discover that most of the words, though strangers at first sight, are really old friends slightly disguised or transformed. Many, indeed, are as old as Homer or Hesiod, for a traveller in the Levant may hear a boatman, for instance, apply to his tackle some designation as old as the Odyssey. The fact is well brought out in these selections that the main bulk even of the vernacular is solidly based on the ancient tongue, and is but slightly disguised even in the colloquial speech. There are little lyrics every word of which is absolutely pure classic Greek, with the verbal forms but slightly altered, while in others the vocabulary is mingled with Italian, Arabic, and Turkish—that is to say, the language is alive, and carries signs of the various soils in which it has grown. The more popular ballads flit rapidly about from one end to the other of the Greek world, and in their travels soon lose definite traces of local color and of dialectic peculiarities. "The Greek language," says Mr. Abbott, "is so elastic that provincial idioms and expressions can easily, and, so to speak, unconsciously, disappear without in the least altering the sense or the rhythm of the original." This vital process must have gone on in the past when the rhapsodists carried the Homeric poems from island to island and from shore to shore; it is a factor that must be reckoned with in any analysis of the Homeric language, and it is evidently a shifting and elusive factor, which nullifies, in the main, attempts like Fick's to recover after thirty centuries the original dialect, "on the assumption that the present form is the result of systematic redaction."

However, these selections are quite too charming to waste their sweetness on the scholar who is seeking merely a philological appendix and commentary on the classical Greek. The poems have a piquant national and characteristic flavor quite their own, and certainly most seductive. Though the selection is made up largely of the editor's own gleanings, and is designed not to trench on previous publications in Western Europe, it offers a surprising freshness, variety, and delicacy of sentiment, sprightliness, exquisite fancy and naïveté, and occasionally a fine lyric frenzy expressed with perfect directness and simplicity. The melancholy fact is, that these unknown improvisers show more genuine poetic gifts than most of the modern versifiers whose names are known in Athens. Mr. Abbott is only a gleaner after Fauriel and Passow; yet we should feel loath to exchange his little volume against the bulky 'Parnassos' of 1,000 pages that appeared in Athens about 1880. Even to the 'Parnassos' we say *macte virtute*, which may be rendered, Hibernicè, "More power to you." For, if we look at home, and subtract from Mr. Stedman's 'American Anthology' the contributions of three or four real poets, what have we to boast of, hitherto? We have no wild flowers to compare with the blossoms of this native Grecian flora.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amery, L. S. The Times History of the War in South Africa. Vol. I. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $25 per set of 5 vols.
Aron, Joseph. Canada Transvaal. New ed. Montrouge (Seine): J. Aron. 2 fr.
Beames, John. A Translation of Glanville. Washington: John Byrne & Co. $3.
Beckman, Mrs. William. Backsheesh: A Woman's Wanderings. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co. $1.50.
Chamberlain, A. F. The Child: A Study in the Evolution of Man. London: Walter Scott; New York; Charles Scribner's Sons.
Cunningham, W. An Essay on Western Civilization in its Economic Aspects. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 4s. 6d.
Davidson, John. Commercial Federation and Colonial Trade Policy. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.
Dodge, N. N. Christus Victor: A Student's Reverie. 2d ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Ellis, Miriam A. The Human Ear: Its Identification and Physiognomy. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Elshemus, L. M. Sweetbrier. Abbey Press. $1.
English Satires. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Gardens Old and New: The Country House and its Garden Environment. [Country Life Library.] London: Country Life; New York: Scribners. $15.
Hamer, Mary. Easy Steps in Latin. American Book Co. 75 cents.
Hart, A. B. National Expansion, 1783-1845. (Vol. III. of American History Told by Contemporaries.) Macmillan. $4.
King, J. R. Demosthenes's Speech against Meidias. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
King, Maude E. Studies in Love. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Launt, F. A. D. The Bartered Birthright: Forty Brief Expository Addresses on the Life of Jacob. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Laut, A. C. Lords of the North. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Little, W. J. K. A Manual of Devotion for Lent. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Melrose, C. J. Bridge Whist. London: L. Upcott Gill; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Morey, W. C. Outlines of Roman History. American Book Co. $1.
Myers, Gustavus. The History of Tammany Hall. New York: Published by the Author.
Paine, P. M. Monday Sermons: Twenty Newspaper Essays. Syracuse: Published by the Author. 50 cents.
Prichard, Hesketh. Where Black Rules White: A Journey across and about Hayti. Scribners. $3.
Ritschl, Albrecht. The Christian Doctrine of Justification and Sanctification. New ed. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
Schlicher, J. J. The Origin of Rhythmical Verse in Late Latin. Chicago: Published by the Author.
Sherman, P. T. Inside the Machine: Two Years in the Board of Aldermen (1898-9). Cooke & Fry.
Simonson, Gustave. A Plain Examination of Socialism. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.
Silver Series of English and American Classics: (1) Ruskin, Sesame and Lilies; (2) Goldsmith, The Traveller, and The Deserted Village; (3) Tennyson, Lancelot, and Elaine; (4) Arnold, Sohrab and Rustum. Silver, Burdett & Co. 25 cents each.
Silver Series of Modern Language Text-Books: (1) Loiseaux, L. A., An Elementary Grammar of the Spanish Language; (2) Loiseaux, L. A., An Elementary Spanish Reader. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Sohm, Rudolph. The Institutes: A Textbook of the History and System of Roman Private Law. New edition. Henry Frowde.
Thwaites, Reuben Gold. Travels and Exploration of the Jesuit Missionaries in New France, 1610-1791. [The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents.] Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co.
Warner, R. T. Winchester. [Handbooks to the Great Public Schools.] London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Watertown Records, Comprising the Third Book of Town Proceedings and the Second Book of Births, Marriages, and Deaths; also Plan and Register of Burials in Arlington Street Burying-Ground. Watertown (Mass.): Published by the Historical Society.
Watson, Chalmers. Encyclopædia Medica. Vols. 5 and 6. (12 vols.) Longmans, Green & Co. $6 per vol.
Watson, T. E. Thomas Jefferson. [Beacon Biographies.] Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75 cents.

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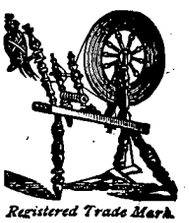

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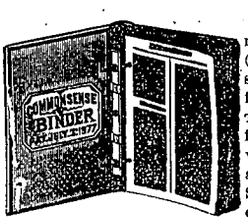

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